



SIR THOMAS LEWIS

A PRIMER OF CARDIOLOGY

BY

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Second Edition, Thoroughly Revised, with 21½ Illustrations



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DEDICATED
TO
VIVIAN GERARD BURCH

with Gratitude and Appreciation for Her Incalculable
Assistance in All of My Endeavors

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION

As indicated in the previous edition this primer is intended for the medical student and physician who are interested in an introduction to cardiology. It is not encyclopedic but treats selected aspects of cardiology to illustrate the importance of applying fundamental principles of physiology to clinical cardiology in order to understand diseases of the heart. The

Because of the reception which the previous edition enjoyed the method of presentation has not been altered. Many diagrammatic illustrations have been employed to assist in more succinct development of ideas. Illustrations employed in the first edition have been improved and new ones have been added. Congenital heart disease is discussed more extensively with emphasis on the current method of clinical study and management.

Angina pectoris and congestive heart failure are discussed in more detail. The current status for example the treatment of syphilis and the mechanism of congestive heart failure. All new material is presented in a fashion to emphasize the correlation of basic principles of cardiovascular physiology with clinical cardiac status. Subjects which are still controversial are mentioned without mechanistic clarification or discussion. The inquisitive student who is impressed with these variations in knowledge may investigate them in the clinic or laboratory.

No bibliography is included because it has no place in such a primer. Furthermore only a thoroughly comprehensive bibliography is possible.

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New Orleans

G. P. B.

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

GENERAL ANATOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

Cardiac and Thoracic Topography	17
The Great Vessels at the Base of the Heart	20
The Cardiac Circulation	20
Certain Aspects of Cardiac Anatomy	23
The Cardiac Valves	25
The Conduction Tissue	28

CHAPTER II

APPROACH TO THE DIAGNOSIS OF HEART DISEASE

Four Major Clinical Diagnostic Cardiac Categories	30
No Heart Disease	30
Heart Disease	31
A Diagnosis of Possible Heart Disease	31
Potential Heart Disease	31
The Dependable or Pathognomonic Signs of Organic Heart Disease	31
Cardiac Enlargement	32
Auricular Fibrillation	41
Auricular Flutter	41
Heart Block	41
Pulsus Alternans	41
Measurement of the Arterial Blood Pressure	41
Pericardial Friction Rub	42
Diastolic Murmur	46
Thrills	46
Generalized Senile Arteriosclerosis	46
Thyrotoxicosis (Graves Disease)	46
Myxedema	46
Classical Heberden Pinn	46
Generalized and Symmetric Venous Hypertension	46
Venous Pressure Measurements	47
	47

Diastolic Hypertension	49
Severe Anemia	49
Protodiastolic Gallop Rhythm	49
Electrocardiographic Signs	49
Diagnosis of Heart Disease	50
Etiologic	50
Anatomic	50
Physiologic	50
Functional	50
The Therapeutic Classification	51
Heart Failure	52
Anginal	52
Congestive	52
Mechanism	52
Backward Failure Concept	53
Forward Failure Concept	53
Failure of Right Ventricle	55
Failure of Left Ventricle	56
Role of Kidneys	57
Diagnosis	58
Left Ventricular	58
Right Ventricular	64
Right and Left Ventricular	66
Intra- and Extravascular Fluid Balance	66
Edema	68
Fluid Intake and Output	69
Mechanism of Diffuse Edema	70
Renal	70
Prerenal	70
Postrenal	71
Specific Types of Edema	72
Cardiac Edema	72
Nephritic Edema	74
Nephrotic Edema	74
Lymphedema	75
Inflammatory Edema	76
Thrombophlebotic Edema	76
General Considerations of Edema	76
Tissue Pressure and the Skin	77

CHAPTER III

THE APPROACH TO A CLINICAL CARDIAC EVALUATION

The History	79
Pain	79
Dyspnea	80
Palpitation	80
Weakness	81
Dyspepsia	81
Cough and Expectoration	81
Miscellaneous Symptoms	81
The Physical Examination	81
General Appearance	82
Pulse	82
Capillary Pulsations	82
Ophthalmoscopic Examination	82
Neck	84
Kinking of the Carotid Arteries	84
Thorax	84
Abdomen	84
Extremities	84
Cyanosis	84
Impairment of Oxygen Exchange in the Lungs	85
Stasis in the Peripheral Blood Vessels	85
Congenital Defects	85
Jaundice	87
Examination of the Heart	87
Inspection	88
Palpitation	88
Percussion	88
Auscultation	90
Heart Sounds	90
Phases of the Cardiac Cycle	90
Auscultation in Practice	91
Sound Tracings	92
Aspects of Physical Characteristics of Sound	95
Audible Frequencies	96
Tone	96
Sound	96
Noise	96
Characteristics of Heart Sounds	97
Origin of Heart Sounds	97
Extraneous Sounds	98
	99

Diastolic Hypertension	41
Severe Anemia	40
Protodiastolic Gallop Rhythm	49
Electrocardiographic Signs	48
Diagnosis of Heart Disease	50
Etiologic	50
Anatomic	50
Physiologic	50
Functional	50
The Therapeutic Classification	71
Heart Failure	52
Anginal	52
Congestive	52
Mechanism	52
Backward Failure Concept	53
Forward Failure Concept	53
Failure of Right Ventricle	55
Failure of Left Ventricle	56
Role of Kidneys	57
Diagnosis	58
Left Ventricular	58
Right Ventricular	64
Right and Left Ventricular	66
Intra- and Extravascular Fluid Balance	66
Edema	68
Fluid Intake and Output	69
Mechanism of Diffuse Edema	70
Renal	70
Prerenal	70
Postrenal	71
Specific Types of Edema	72
Cardiac Edema	72
Nephritic Edema	74
Nephrotic Edema	74
Lymphedema	75
Inflammatory Edema	76
Thrombophlebitic Edema	76
General Considerations of Edema	76
Tissue Pressure and the Skin	77

Congenital Cardiac Anomalies	149
Patent Interventricular Septum	149
Patent Interauricular Septum	153
Pulmonary Stenosis	154
Aortic Stenosis and Coarctation of the Aorta	154
Combination Anomalies	154
Patent Ductus Arteriosus	154
Pericardial Friction Rub	156
Miscellaneous Extracardiac Sounds Heard Over the Heart	157
Apical Ternal Crunch	157
Cardiorespiratory Sounds	157
Mediastinal Emphysema	158
Hydropneumopericardium	158
Variations in Heart Sounds Due to Variations in Activation of the	
Ventricular Musculature	158
Bundle Branch Block	158
Complete Atrioventricular Block	158
Systoles en Echo	159
Bruit de Cannon	159
Auricular Fibrillation	159
Premature Contractions and Pulsus Alternans	160

CHAPTER IV

THE COMMON TYPES OF HEART DISEASE

Introductory Remarks	161
Definition of Disease	161
Incidence of Heart Disease	162
Heart Disease Produced by Infections	162
Acute Myocarditis	163
Pathologic Manifestations	163
Clinical Manifestations	164
Laboratory Findings	164
Diagnostic Criteria	164
Course and Prognosis	165
Management	165
Endocarditis	165
Bacterial Endocarditis	166
Acute	166
Subacute	166
Pericarditis	171
Clinical Aspects	172
	173

Recording of Sound	99
The Recording Devices	99
The Phlebogram	100
Physiologic Phases of the Cardiac Cycle	101
Analysis of the Phonocardiogram	102
Normal Heart Sounds	103
First Heart Sound	103
Relation to Other Cardiac Events	106
Second Heart Sound	107
Relation to Other Cardiac Phenomena	107
Third Heart Sound	108
Relation to Other Cardiac Functions	108
Fourth or Auricular Sound	109
Relation to Other Physiologic Activity	111
Special Types of Variations in Heart Sounds	112
Splitting of Heart Sound	114
First Sound	114
Second Sound	116
Bundle Branch Block	116
Relation of Heart Sounds to Type of Patient	116
Heart Sounds in Disease	117
Gallop Rhythm	117
Classification	117
Heart Sounds and Murmurs in Valvular Disease	119
The Mitral Valve	122
Mitral Stenosis	122
Turbulence of Flow	123
Murmur	126
Etiology	129
Tricuspid Stenosis	132
Mitral Insufficiency or Regurgitation	133
Etiology	137
The Aortic Valve	138
Aortic Stenosis	138
Aortic Insufficiency, Regurgitation or Incompetence	140
The Pulmonary Valve	145
Pulmonary Stenosis	145
Pulmonary Insufficiency, Regurgitation or Incompetence	147
Tricuspid Valve	149
Stenosis	149
Tricuspid Insufficiency, Regurgitation or Incompetence	149

Tetralogy of Fallot	249
Eisenmenger's Complex	252
Tricuspid Atresia	253
Transposition of the Great Vessels	254
Coarctation of the Aorta	255
Other Etiologic Types of Heart Disease	257
Treatment of Congestive Heart Failure	257
Treatment of Angina Pectoris	260
Treatment of Coronary Occlusion	262

CHAPTER V

BEDSIDE DIAGNOSIS OF CARDIAC IRREGULARITIES

Cardiac Mechanisms	267
Normal Sinus Rhythm	268
Sinus Tachycardia	269
Sinus Bradycardia	272
Sinus Arrhythmia	273
Premature Contractions	274
Mechanism	274
Bedside Manifestations	275
Bigeminy	281
Interpolated Premature Contractions	283
Treatment	284
Paroxysmal Tachycardia	284
Classification	285
Bedside Recognition	285
Treatment	287
Auricular Flutter	288
Bedside Diagnosis	289
Clinical Characteristics	289
Differential Diagnosis	290
Treatment	290
Auricular Fibrillation	290
Differential Diagnosis	290
Treatment	294
Alternation of the Heart	296
Diagnosis	296
Treatment	297
Heart Block	297
Diagnosis	298
Treatment	299
	301

<i>Pathology and Physiology</i>	176
<i>Diagnosis</i>	178
<i>Prevention</i>	183
<i>Treatment</i>	183
<i>Pneuritis</i>	184
Heart Disease Due to Anemia	184
Heart Disease Associated with Nutritional Disease States	186
<i>Beriberi Heart Disease</i>	187
Cardiac Dysfunction Produced by Psychoneuroses	189
<i>Simple Tachycardia</i>	190
<i>Neurocirculatory Asthenia</i>	191
<i>Vasovagal Attacks</i>	192
<i>Management of the Cardiac Neuroses</i>	193
Heart Disease Produced by the Aging Process	193
<i>Mechanism</i>	193
<i>Incidence</i>	196
<i>Pathologic Changes</i>	196
<i>Clinical Manifestations</i>	199
<i>Impaired Coronary Circulation</i>	199
<i>Myocardial Infarction</i>	199
<i>Angina Pectoris</i>	201
Hypertensive Heart Disease	203
Syphilitic Heart Disease	209
Rheumatic Heart Disease	213
Thyroid Heart Disease	219
<i>Hyperthyroid Heart Disease</i>	219
<i>Hypothyroid Heart Disease</i>	221
Congenital Cardiac Anomalies	222
<i>Cause</i>	222
<i>Incidence</i>	223
<i>Clinical Manifestations</i>	223
<i>Anomalous Shunts</i>	228
<i>Left to Right Intracardiac Shunt</i>	231
<i>Right to Left Intracardiac Shunt</i>	237
<i>Specific Cardiac Defects</i>	239
<i>Classification</i>	239
<i>Auricular Septal Defects</i>	241
<i>Ventricular Septal Defects</i>	244
<i>Patent Ductus Arteriosus</i>	245
<i>Pulmonary Stenosis</i>	247

A PRIMER OF CARDIOLOGY

Chapter 1

GENERAL ANATOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

A KNOWLEDGE of certain anatomic facts is essential in cardiology. Although it is obviously desirable that this knowledge be as detailed as possible, only some of the more general and essential anatomic principles can be presented in this limited space. This will be done primarily through the medium of diagrammatic illustrations.

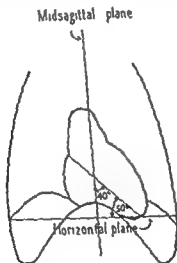


FIG. 1. The angles formed by the longitudinal axis of the heart with the horizontal and midsagittal planes viewed in the frontal plane of the body.

CARDIAC AND THORACIC TOPOGRAPHY

It is extremely important that the relationship of the heart and its various components to the thorax be kept clearly in mind. This is necessary not only for the proper appreciation of the problems of physical diagnosis but especially for roentgenographic and electrocardiographic studies. Surgical and medical considerations require an adequate knowledge of topographic cardiac anatomy. It is not difficult to visualize clearly the position of the heart in the thorax. It should be remembered that it is suspended by the

APPENDIX

Nomenclature and Classification of Heart Disease	303
Relations of Cardiac Measurements to Body Size	307
Diets Employed in Cardiac Disease	311
Incidence of Heart Disease	323
By Age	323
By Occupation	324
Mortality in Heart Disease	325

various anatomic components and the

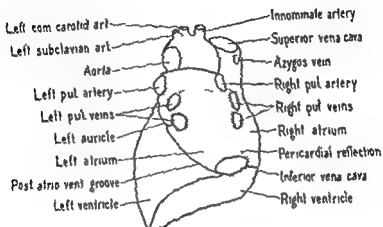


Fig. 4.—The relative position of the pericardial structures of the heart as well posteriorly. The right ventricle is anterior and inferior (by its position).

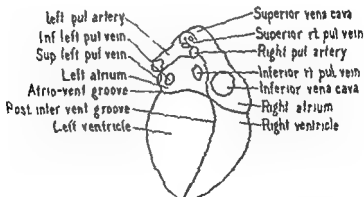


Fig. 5.—Diagrammatic and posterior view of the heart. The right ventricle forms the greater part of the diaphragmatic surface of the heart.

These figures should be studied carefully and learned thoroughly. For example, it is commonly erroneously considered that the right border of the heart is formed by the right ventricle or that the right ventricle is to the right. A glance at figure 3 shows that the right atrium forms the right

great vessels at the base in such a manner that the apex or longitudinal axis is directed *downward, forward and to the left* (Figs. 1 and 2).

The three important angles formed by the longitudinal axis of the average human heart with the *frontal*, *midsagittal* and *horizontal* planes of the body should be known.

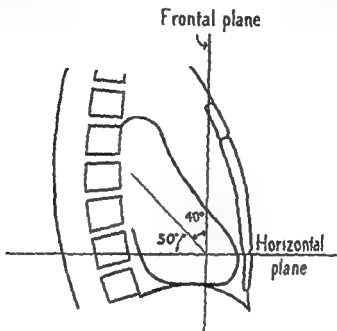


FIG. 2 —The angles formed by the longitudinal axis of the heart with the horizontal and frontal planes viewed laterally

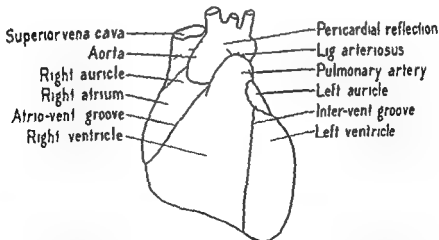


FIG. 3 —Diagrammatic representation of the main structures of the heart viewed anteriorly. Note the relative positions of the cardiac chambers. For example, the right border of the heart shadow is *not* formed by the right ventricle, but rather by the right atrium.

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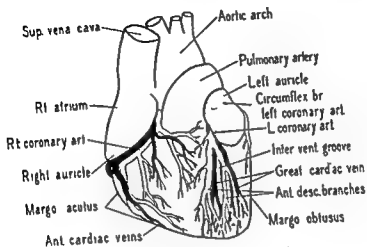


FIG 7—Coronary circulation noted anteriorly

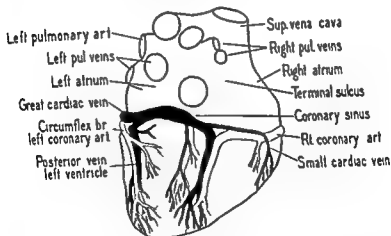


FIG 8—Coronary circulation noted posteriorly

of the anterior surface of the heart are indispensible for convulsions, trauma to the heart. The larger coronary arteries are likewise of clinical importance. The AV node,

border of the heart and that the right ventricle is situated anterodiarphragmatically. These and many other anatomic facts should be correctly learned before cardiology is approached.

THE GREAT VESSELS AT THE BASE OF THE HEART

The large arteries and veins leaving and returning to the base of the heart are extremely important in cardiology. The anatomic relationships of these structures (Fig. 6) to each other and to other structures in the superior portion of the mediastinum should be permanently impressed upon one's mind. For example, inspection of figure 6 reveals how readily an aneurysm of the aortic arch may press upon the left recurrent laryngeal nerve and produce hoarseness and how an aneurysm of the superior portion

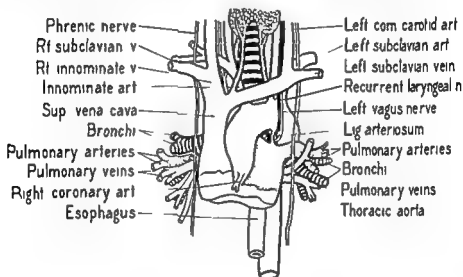


FIG. 6.—The relative positions of the great vessels at the base of the heart. Note the left recurrent laryngeal nerve looping under the arch of the aorta. Because of this the close approximation and interference of the vessels and nerves in the superior portion of the mediastinum.

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otherwise appear complicated to those unfamiliar with such anatomic facts.

THE CARDIAC CIRCULATION

A knowledge of the present day concept of the circulation to the heart is not difficult to attain. Many of the details of the circulation remain

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 future surgery.

congenital anomalies and heart disease.

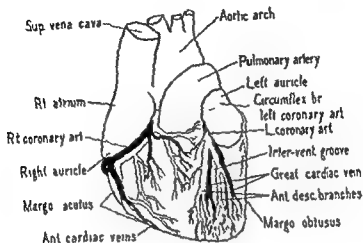


Fig 7 - Cardiac circulation noted anteriorly

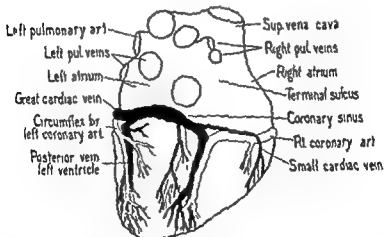


Fig 8 - Cardiac circulation noted posteriorly

The main coronary vessels of the anterior surface of the heart are indicated in figure 7. These vessels are forever presenting themselves for consideration in problems concerned with myocardial infarction, trauma to the heart, surgical therapeutic procedures and the like. The larger coronary vessels of the posterior surface of the heart (Fig 8) are likewise of clinical importance. It is well to remember that the atrioventricular (AV) node,

bundle of His and origin of the two bundle branches receive most of their arterial circulation from the posterior or right coronary artery. The anterior and posterior coronary arteries anastomose freely in the interventricular septum.

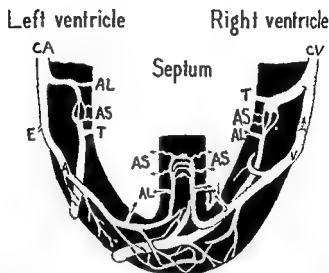


FIG. 9—The circulation to the subendocardial myocardium by way of the lumina of the ventricles. These channels are concerned significantly with the development of collateral circulation. CA, coronary artery, CV, coronary vein, T, thebesian vein, AL, arterioluminar, AS, arteriovenous, E, extracardiac vessel.

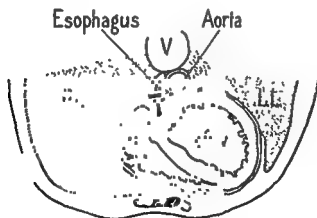


FIG. 10—Transverse section of the heart and thorax showing the relative positions of the principal mediastinal structures and the ventricles.

The ventricular myocardium depends for nutrition, to a considerable degree, upon circulation by way of the lumina of the ventricles. This is particularly important under stresses of disease states concerned with impaired coronary artery circulation. The quantitative and qualitative

roles of the arterio-luminal, thebesian and arterio-muscular vessels (Fig. 9) remain essentially unknown. Because of these vessels the subendocardial layers of ventricular muscle rarely succumb to coronary occlusion which often results in massive death of subepicardial muscle. These vessels seem to be concerned significantly with angina pectoris, a clinical state little known anatomically or physiologically.

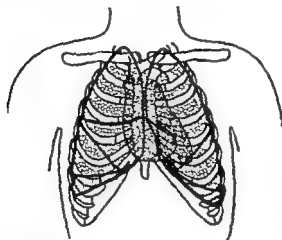


FIG. 11. The relationship of the heart to the pleural fissures and lobes of the lungs viewed anteriorly. The indicated pleural reflections connected by the parallel lines are their respective positions during inspiration and expiration.

CERTAIN CLINICAL ASPECTS OF CARDIAC ANATOMY

There are certain other relationships of the cardiac structures to the thoracic wall which have clinical significance. The relative positions of

the relationship of the heart to the lobes of the lungs and the fissures and pleura (Fig. 11) is extremely important. This is particularly well exemplified by the clinical problems concerned with pericarditis. Not infrequently pneumonitis or pleuritis near the heart results in septic or sterile pericarditis. These sections of the most appropriate. In section of figure might evade the pulmonary parenchyma and pleural spaces as well as

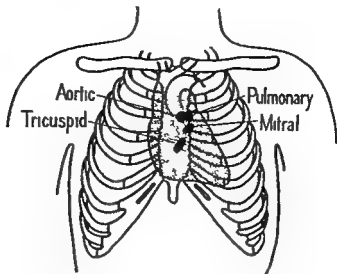


FIG. 12 — The *anatomic* valvular areas of the heart noted topographically on the anterior surface of the thorax

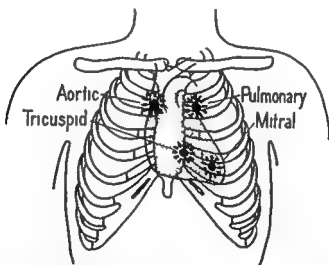


FIG. 13 — The *clinical* valvular areas noted topographically on the anterior surface of the thorax. It is at the points indicated that the auscultatory physiologic valvular phenomena are most intense. Compare these areas with the *anatomic* ones shown in figure 12

whereas the clinical valvular areas are widely separated. The striking differences in distribution of the clinical valvular areas are due to physical problems concerned with the conduction and production of the heart sounds. This is explained partially by the fact that all sound usually considered as resulting from valvular closure actually is the result of other events, such as snapping of the chordae tendinae and blood movements.

In addition the sound is not conducted directly outward but through conducting tissue or media of varying sound transmission characteristics including blood in the blood vessels and air in the lungs. In large part because of anatomic factors the characteristics of the heart sounds that reach the observer's ears are considerably different from those at the source. During auscultation of heart sounds and murmurs these facts should be kept in mind.

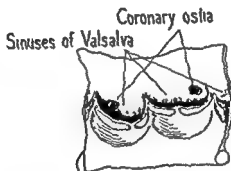


FIG. 11. Section of the heart showing the coronary ostia and the sinuses of Valsalva. The coronary ostia are the openings of the coronary arteries into the aorta. The sinuses of Valsalva are the dilated portions of the aorta just above the aortic valve. The diagram is a cross-section of the heart base, with the aorta and pulmonary trunk visible. Labels with leader lines point to the 'Coronary ostia' and 'Sinuses of Valsalva'.

THE CARDIAC VALVES

The structure and detailed anatomic characteristics of the cardiac valves should be learned thoroughly but will not be discussed in detail here. Many clinical states are dependent upon anatomic peculiarities of these valves. Functional states of the valves which are of considerable importance and interest are dependent upon anatomic characteristics. Many structural configurations in the heart must possess definite useful evolutionary peculiarities which are not chance occurrences but are the result of well organized developmental processes. Such evolutionary developments resulting in anatomic states of importance in ensuring physiologic efficiency are well exemplified by the aortic valves (Figs. 14, 15 and 16). Two interesting examples are described and, of course it is possible to analyze many others.

1. The essentially sacular configuration of the

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phenomenon is particularly likely to occur with sudden changes in the volume of blood flow. This is especially true in the presence of stenosis of the valves. In the presence of stenosis the pressure within the

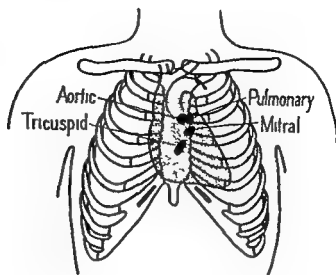


FIG. 12 —The *anatomic* valvular areas of the heart noted topographically on the anterior surface of the thorax

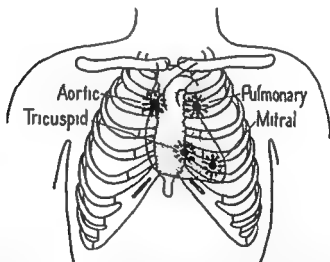


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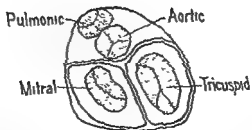
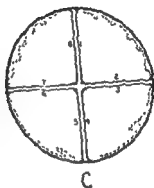
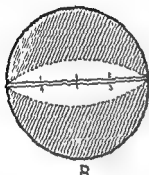
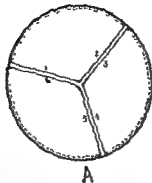


FIG. 17.—Subventricular view of the closed valves of the heart. All valves are closed simultaneously, and for a moment physiologically, during the period of isometric relaxation of the cardiac cycle.

wider opening of the ostia of the coronary arteries. These phenomena illustrate the *dynamic nature* of cardiac anatomy.

2 The presence of *three cusps* to guard the aortic and pulmonic valves must not be merely a chance phenomenon for *any number* of cusps other than three would result in less efficiency of blood flow through the two openings (Fig. 16). It can be seen from figure 16 that with the nature of the construction of the aortic and pulmonic valves their free edges total a length which is essentially equal to six times the radius ($6r$) of the aortic or pulmonic orifices. This is also essentially equal to the circumference of the aortic or pulmonic rings or openings. Therefore when these valves open

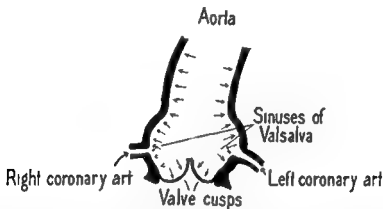


FIG. 15 The sacular shape of the sinuses of Valsalva tends to ensure more efficient coronary blood flow. With an increase in pressure in these sinuses there is distention of the walls with a tendency for the walls to pull away from the ostia of the coronary arteries. This tends to result in an increase in size of these ostia which in turn causes more blood to flow to the myocardium. This is particularly likely to occur with sudden closure of the aortic valves, especially in diastolic hypertension.

the cusps rest smoothly and snugly against the wall of the roots of the aortic and pulmonary artery ensuring maximal opening of the orifices. If there were two cusps the length of the edges of the valves would total $4r$ or essentially two thirds the length of the circumference of the aortic and pulmonic orifices respectively. Stenosis of the openings would result. If there were more than three cusps for example four the total length of the edges of the cusps would exceed the circumference of the orifices and therefore folding and overlapping of the cusps would occur when the valves open. This would also result in stenosis of the openings. This further illustrates the peculiarities of cardiac anatomy.

Chordae tendinae and papillary muscles are peculiar to the mitral or left atrioventricular (two leaflets) valve and the tricuspid or right atrioventricular (three leaflets) valve. This fact is particularly important for a better understanding of functional insufficiency of these valves. Figure 17 shows the supraventricular appearance of the four heart valves when they are all closed simultaneously, a phenomenon occurring during the period of isometric relaxation.

It should be noted that most of the early impulses to the septum are transmitted by the left bundle branch

in

so

and certain irregularities. It should be thoroughly learned

THE CONDUCTION TISSUE

The conduction tissue is a highly specialized type of muscle which transmits impulses with relatively great rapidity. The sinoauricular (SA) node is the normal pacemaker of the heart, that is, it is the site of impulse formation. The atrioventricular (AV) node ensures proper asynchronous contraction of the atria and ventricles by delaying the cardiac impulse from the atria for an adequate length of time to ensure proper timing of ventricular contraction, thus resulting in efficient cardiac hemodynamics. The bundle of His, bundle branches and Purkinje system provide adequate and prompt distribution of the impulse to the ventricular musculature (Fig 18).

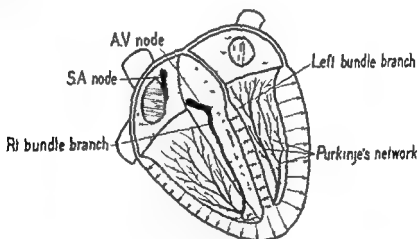


FIG. 18 — Diagrammatic representation of the conduction tissue of the heart

In brief, the conduction tissue is distributed as follows. The sinoauricular node is located on the posterior wall of the right atrium near the entrance of the vena cava. Conduction from this node occurs across the atrial musculature to the atrioventricular node located posteriorly near the junction of atrial and ventricular septa. Of course transmission of the impulse occurs throughout the atrial musculature but is prevented from continuing into the muscle of ventricles by a nonresponsive fibrous ring. This ring constitutes the skeletal framework of the heart and supports the valves and great vessels. The only normal pathway into the ventricles is through the bundle of His, which extends into the interventricular septum, at which point it divides and continues down each side of the interventricular septum posteriorly to the respective inner ventricular surfaces. Its structure is actually similar to a bundle, and as it leaves the septum it often courses as a discrete band across the cavity of the heart, especially on the right (moderator band). As it spreads out along the ventricle, it branches and finally divides into the terminal arborizations (Purkinje system). The mode of radiation is shown by the small arrows (Fig 18).

rheumatic fever, anemia, hypertension, arterio-sclerosis, syphilis and the like cannot be detected

2 **Heart Disease** is said to be present only when a reliable or pathognomonic sign of heart disease has been elicited. It is extremely important to be observed

of heart disease merely is a result of diagnosis of heart disease is psychical disturbances with some degree of unhappiness and anxiety. Furthermore a patient who has once been given an erroneous diagnosis of heart disease can never be completely convinced that his heart is normal, even when rendered such in opinion by experts in the field. Therefore one must be sure of the diagnosis before telling a person he has heart disease

3 A **Diagnosis of Possible Heart Disease** is made in a patient who has signs and symptoms which suggest heart disease, but in whom no definite criterion of heart disease can be elicited. At the time the patient may or may not have an etiologic factor known to produce heart disease. For example, a patient with hypertension of recent development, vague precordial

1 **Conclusive Heart Disease** is said to be present in a patient with an etiologic factor known to produce heart disease but in whom there are no signs, symptoms or other clinical data indicative or suggestive of heart disease

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Dise

THE DEPENDABLE OR PATHOGNOMONIC SIGNS OF ORGANIC HEART DISEASE

As stated previously before a diagnosis of organic heart disease can be made it is necessary that at least one definite criterion for heart disease be found. Any one or more of the signs listed may be considered as reliable signs of heart disease. All of these are relatively easy to detect under the usual clinical circumstances or entirely at the bedside. The special circumstances in which each sign may possess less reliability will be discussed

- 1 Cardiac enlargement
- 2 Auricular fibrillation
- 3 Auricular flutter
- 4 Heart block
- 5 Pulsus alternans
- 6 Pericardial friction rub

Chapter 2

APPROACH TO THE DIAGNOSIS OF HEART DISEASE

In order to make an intelligent and complete diagnosis of heart disease it is essential that the problem be approached in an organized fashion. In realization of this fact the New York Heart Association and American Heart Association have published an excellent little book, *Nomenclature and Criteria for the Diagnosis of Diseases of the Heart*. All students and physicians who are concerned with the heart to the slightest extent should not only own but should study, learn and understand its contents. It will be assumed in the following discussions that the contents of this book have been thoroughly mastered. A proper approach to the study and diagnosis of the patient will yield a more complete inventory of his cardiac state, and consequently his management will be considerably more satisfactory. A superficial study will result in superficial management; a detailed thorough study will lead to satisfactory management with proper consideration and evaluation of all details. Careful organized procurement of the cardiac inventory also permits anticipation of complications and more accurate prognosis.

FOUR MAJOR CLINICAL DIAGNOSTIC CARDIAC CATEGORIES

Whenever a person presents himself for an examination and a cardiac evaluation is to be rendered, all possible available methods of study should be utilized in the clinical workup. Experience has shown that even after all available methods have been adequately employed the evaluation is not absolutely satisfactory; therefore no method of study, however minor, should be omitted. The heart of every person, once it has been completely studied, can be classified in one of four *major clinical diagnostic cardiac categories*:

1. No heart disease
2. Heart disease
3. Possible heart disease or
4. Potential heart disease

The criteria necessary for the diagnosis of each of these must be known and fulfilled in order to render the *correct diagnosis*. The *diagnostic criteria* for each of the foregoing categories are as follows:

1. No Heart Disease—A person is said to have no heart disease or normal heart if *there are no symptoms or signs which are indicative or suggestive of heart disease and if at the same time there is no active etiologic factor present known to cause heart disease*, i. e. active clinical states such as

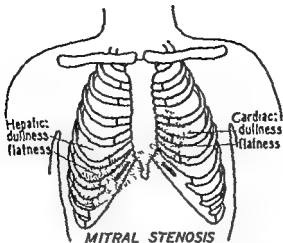


FIG. 20 —The areas of cardiac dullness and flatness as indicated over the base of the heart in mitral stenosis. The area of dullness is increased in area to the left and upward.

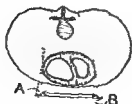


FIG. 21 —The proximity of the source of the systolic murmur.

- 7 Diastolic murmur
- 8 Thrill
- 9 Generalized aortic arteriosclerosis
- 10 Thyrotoxicosis of several months' duration
- 11 Myxedema
- 12 True Heberden pum (ungui pectoris and myocardial infarction syndromes)
- 13 Symmetric and definite elevation of venous pressure in all veins throughout the body
- 14 Diastolic hypertension for a prolonged period of time
- 15 Severe anemia
- 16 Protodiastolic gallop rhythm
- 17 Many definite electrocardiographic changes

1 **Cardiac Enlargement** Any heart that is enlarged is abnormal. The possibility of 'normal athletic enlargement' is still controversial, however. From the practical clinical point of view, any localized or generalized cardiac enlargement indicates heart disease.

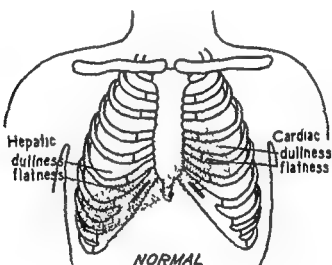


FIG. 19.—The area of cardiac and hepatic dullness (black stippling) and flatness (dark stippling) in the normal subject.

Cardiac enlargement is detected by

(a) *Inspection of the precordial region* With enlargement the apical pulsation or the point of maximal impulse (PMI) is displaced to the left and downward beyond the midclavicular line and usually below the level of the fifth intercostal space. With extreme enlargement the precordial region may bulge outward; this is particularly true in children with right ventricular enlargement.

(b) *Palpation of the cardiac region* will reveal the position of the PMI and apex beat. With left ventricular enlargement the PMI is displaced downward and to the left. Bulging of the anterior chest wall can also be palpated.

Teleoroentgenography is the most frequently employed of the roentgenographic methods of examination. It has advantages of being simple and fairly inexpensive. Furthermore, it results in a permanent record which is available in the future for comparative purposes to follow the course of variations in cardiac size and configuration.

In addition to the TPA (crætopotero anterior) view (fig. 24) views are taken in the left interior oblique, right interior oblique and lateral positions (figs. 25-26). The right interior oblique view permits examination of the root of the aorta, pulmonary conus, main trunk of the pulmonary artery, right ventricle, left atrium and esophagus. The left interior oblique view (fig. 26) permits study of the entire thoracic aorta from the root to the diaphragm, esophagus, posterior surface of the heart, pulmonary arteries, right ventricle and inflow tract of the left ventricle. A barium sulfate (rühopique) paste should be swallowed by the patient to permit visualization of the configuration and position of the esophagus, and tele-

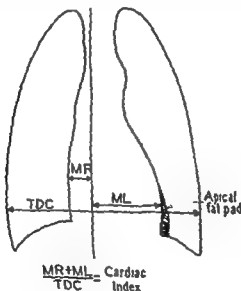


Fig. 25. (Lateral view of the heart)

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MR =

MI =

MR +

TDC

The

clinical error

(c) *Percussion* enables the cardiac area of dulness to be outlined. By comparison of the area percussed with the expected normal size the degree of enlargement can be evaluated (Fig 19). In mitral stenosis there may be enlargement to the left and upward without displacement of the apex (Fig 20).

(d) *Roentgenography*. Unfortunately, the methods employed in physical examination are unreliable and often grossly inaccurate, especially with borderline cardiac size and with pulmonary disease and thoracic deformities. Roentgenographic methods are the methods of choice for the study of cardiac size and configuration. There are several types of examination available, the most useful of which are

- (1) Teleoroentgenography
- (2) Fluoroscopy
- (3) Orthodiagraphy
- (4) Roentgenkymography
- (5) Angiocardiography
- (6) Planography

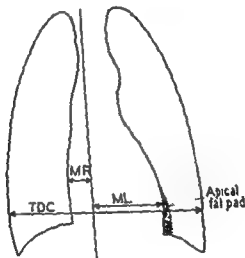
(1) *Teleoroentgenography*. The patient lies in the supine position with the anterior surface of his chest against the cassette and with the x-ray tube placed posteriorly. If the source of the roentgen rays is placed near the heart, magnification of the cardiac outline results. The closer the heart is to the source of the x-rays, the greater the magnification (Fig 21).

Many types of measurements and standards have been developed. Most of them are highly detailed technical and impractical, and add little information to the more practical ones employed generally. Under most clinical conditions, the simple ratio of the transverse diameter of the heart to the greatest internal diameter of the chest proves to be most practical. These measurements are obtained directly from the teleoroentgenogram (Fig 22 and Appendix). The transverse diameter of the heart is obtained by drawing a midsternal line through the center of the sternum on the teleoroentgenogram. A line perpendicular to this line is extended to the furthestmost right margin of the cardiac shadow. Another line perpendicular to the midsternal line is extended to the outermost margin of the cardiac shadow to the left. Care must be taken not to include the apical fat pad (Fig 22). The sum of the lengths of these two lines represents the *transverse diameter of the heart*. The *greatest internal diameter of the chest* is measured in the same units of length. In the normal heart the transverse diameter of the heart should not exceed 57 per cent of the greatest internal diameter of the chest. Clinicians usually employ the value 50 per cent instead of 57 per cent because of greater simplicity. Any value greater than 57 per cent indicates definite enlargement, a pathognomonic sign of heart disease. Unfortunately, this method of measurement is subject to error, and a heart may enlarge a great deal before the cardiac index reaches abnormal values. This is particularly true in patients with ptotic ("dropped") hearts (Fig 23). The Ungerleider Tables (see Appendix) are considered by some as a more accurate index of cardiac size.

Teleoroentgenography is the most frequently employed of the roentgenographic methods of examination. It has advantages of being simple and fairly inexpensive. Furthermore, it results in a permanent record which is available in the future for comparative purposes to follow the course of variations in cardiac size and configuration.

In addition to the I P A (erect postero-anterior) view (Fig. 23) views are taken in the left anterior oblique, right anterior oblique and lateral

diaphragm, esophagus, posterior surface of the heart, a barium sulfate (radiopaque) paste should be swallowed by the patient to permit visualization of the configuration and position of the esophagus, and tele-



$$\frac{MR+ML}{TDC} = \text{Cardiac Index}$$

Fig. 23 Diagram illustrating the measurements for the Cardiac Index. The diagram shows a frontal view of the chest with the heart silhouette. The measurements are: MR (Maximum Right Oblique Diameter), ML (Maximum Left Oblique Diameter), and TDC (Transverse Diameter of the Chest). The Cardiac Index is calculated as $\frac{MR+ML}{TDC}$.

The Cardiac Index is a measurement of the transverse diameter of the heart in relation to the transverse diameter of the chest. It is calculated by dividing the sum of the maximum right and left oblique diameters of the heart by the transverse diameter of the chest.

The unit of measurement is usually centimeters (see Appendix).

roentgenograms should be taken in three or more views. This permits further analysis of changes in cardiac size and distortions (Fig. 27).

(2) *Fluoroscopy*—Fluoroscopic examination is the most informative of all the roentgenologic methods. The patient is placed between the fluoroscopic screen and the x-ray tube and is examined in a dark room. The nature of the movements of the chambers of the heart and great vessels is studied. To examine the heart properly, the examiner should remain in an absolutely dark room for at least twenty minutes before beginning

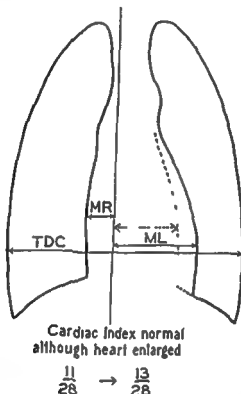


FIG. 23. Diagrammatic representation of a pectic heart with a $\frac{MR + ML}{TDC} = \frac{11}{28}$ at one time. Later the heart increased in size from the dotted line to the solid line and $\frac{MR + ML}{TDC}$ increased to $\frac{13}{28}$. Although the heart increased in size the cardiac index remained within normal limits. This type of observation indicates (1) the need for serial teleroentgenograms and (2) the shortcomings of the cardiac index in the termination of cardiac enlargement.

the fluoroscopic examination. One of the greatest errors which leads to poor fluoroscopic examination is failure to allow for full accommodation for vision in a poorly illuminated room. During fluoroscopic examination the beating heart is observed while its position is varied by rotating the patient. The patient should then swallow a thick paste of barium sulfate.

a radiopaque material. This thick paste adheres to the mucosa of the esophagus and permits adequate visualization of the esophagus including distortion and displacement of various portions by the extra-esophageal structures such as the heart and great vessels. This should be done with the patient first in the right anterior oblique position and then in other positions. Any displacement that results from disturbances in cardiac size

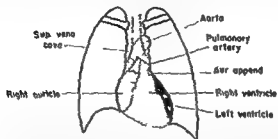


FIG. 24.—The cardiac silhouette is observed in the anteroposterior position. These anatomic relationships are important in fluoroscopic or teleroentgenographic studies. This view is particularly useful in a study of the outflow tract of the left ventricle, the pulmonary conus and the aortic knob.

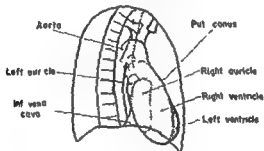


FIG. 25.—The
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right ventricle pr

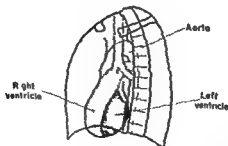


FIG. 26.—The cardiac silhouette in the left anterior oblique position. This is particularly useful for a study of the inflow tract of the left ventricle, the aortic arch and descending aorta, the pulmonary tissue behind the heart and the pulmonary artery.

can be detected (Fig. 27). Unfortunately the cardiac size cannot be permanently recorded fluoroscopically, although it can be described and recorded fairly accurately by this method. Furthermore, because of the relative positions of the x-ray tube, patient's heart and fluoroscopic screen the heart size is variably magnified (Fig. 21). With experience the observer can acquire skill in evaluating the degree of magnification due to the fluoroscope so that proper allowances can be made. By means of the fluoroscope variations in the degree of pulsations, paradoxical pulsations in cardiac aneurysms, tugging by adhesions, reduced pulsations in pericardial effusion etc., can be observed and evaluated.

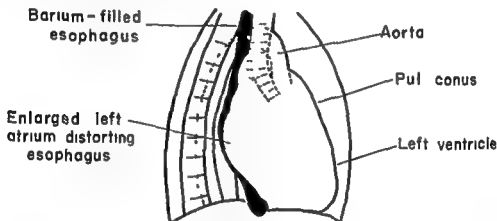


FIG. 27—The cardiossilhouette in the right anterior oblique position showing the dilated left atrium displacing the barium-filled esophagus in mitral stenosis.

(3) *Orthodiagraphy* is employed relatively infrequently in this country. It permits not only a fluoroscopic study but also an accurate and permanent record of cardiac size and configuration without magnification. In this method the fluorescent screen remains stationary while the x-ray tube is moved by the examiner in order to bring the central beam of x-rays emitted perpendicular to the fluoroscopic screen and in direct line with the borders of the heart; thus only a central stream of x-ray moving in a straight non-diverging line is used (Fig. 28). A tracing of the cardiac silhouette is made on transparent paper placed on the fluorescent screen. Tracings may be made of any view desired with or without the use of barium in the esophagus.

By means of a suitable lever and locking device the orthodiagraphic mechanism with the fixed screen and independently movable x-ray tube can be converted to a fluoroscopic mechanism in which the screen and tube move simultaneously as a single unit.

(4) *Roentgenokymography* is not employed frequently although it has valuable applications in clinical cardiology. For recording the roentgenokymogram the same procedure is employed as for a teleroentgenogram except that the cassette containing the film is moved steadily and relatively slowly for about 11 millimeters in front of a series of horizontal lead lattices.

placed 12 millimeters apart. The resultant record (Fig. 29) shows a serrated border with the crests being the edge of the heart shadow at the termination of diastole and the troughs the border at the end of systole. If it were not for the fact that the heart shifted and rotated in position the relative distances of peaks and troughs would be an accurate index of the stroke volume. The roentgenokymogram is of some use, nevertheless in estimating stroke volume. It is especially useful in localizing an aneurysm or area of infarction of the heart. In the infarcted area there is an

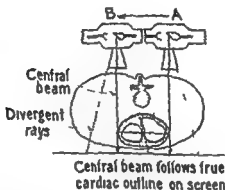


FIG. 28 Diagram illustrating the manner in which only the central portion of the x-ray beam is directed perpendicular to the fluoroscopic screen in outlining the cardiac silhouette. The x-ray tube is moved while the fluoroscopic screen is fixed. The x-ray tube is moved along the outermost margin of the heart thus casting a true shadow of the heart on the fluoroscopic screen for tracing. This type of roentgenologic study is known as orthodiagraphy.

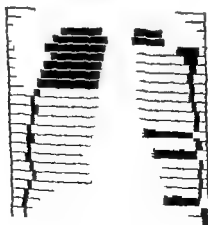


FIG. 29—Diagram of a roentgenogram. Consult text for details.

outward bulging during systole, or a *crest* instead of a *trough* as the dead muscle fails to contract and the high intraventricular pressure occurring during systole forces the infarcted zone outward (Fig. 30). It is also of value in demonstrating pericardial fluid which reduces the amplitude of the peaks and troughs and for identifying various chambers of the heart and great vessels by the relative timing of their phases of expansion and contraction

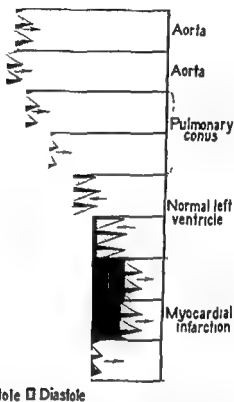


FIG. 30—The left lateral portion of a roentgenokymogram in a patient with an anterolateral infarct to show the details of the discordant pulsations in the various portions of the heart and great vessels. On close inspection of the volume pulsations of the left ventricle contraction is true for the pulmonary

ventricles

(5) *Angiocardiography*—The vessels near the heart and the chambers of the heart may be observed roentgenographically for variations in size or for congenital and acquired anomalies by means of radiopaque materials injected into the blood stream followed immediately by serial roentgeno-

into a vein or may be instilled by means of a cardiac catheter into any chamber or great vessel of the heart. Instillations on the arterial side may be associated with serious reactions. This form of visualization of the heart and its great vessels has rather limited applications at present. It is employed only for special problems. Whenever a safe radiopaque material is developed it will probably be used more generally.

(6) *Planography*—This type of roentgenographic study involves, by special means, visualization of selected planar depths of the heart upon x-ray film. It is employed particularly in cardiology for the search of calcified areas of the heart such as calcification of valves or is of the pericardium or zones of myocardial infarction.

2 **Auricular Fibrillation**—Auricular fibrillation should be considered a definite sign of heart disease until proved otherwise. True enough, young

cardiac neurotic. When auricular fibrillation is the principal abnormal manifestation the physician should never suggest to the patient that he has heart disease until he is certain of the diagnosis. Many of the cardiac states associated with auricular fibrillation are reversible, therefore a diagnosis of heart disease should be withheld from the patient until proved to exist. In the presence of a cause for heart disease and in older people, auricular fibrillation is a good sign of heart disease.

3) **Auricular Flutter** The same rule holds as indicated for auricular fibrillation (consult the section on cardiac irregularities for further considerations of these two types of S & A).

4 Heart Block - Heart.

sign of heart disease 1

clinical diagnosis is indef

recording device. The art book is discussed in more detail at the end of the

IL IS DIFFICILE PER IL

Pulsus alternans may follow digitalis intoxication and disappear when the drug is reduced to proper doses. Such an alternans is usually

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in alternation of only 2 or 3 mm mercury may exist and be missed if the blood pressure is not determined properly. It seems advisable to discuss here certain aspects of the method for recording the arterial blood pressure since there is a great tendency to determine the arterial blood pressure improperly.

outward bulging during systole or a *crest* instead of a *trough* as the dead muscle fails to contract and the high intraventricular pressure occurring so of value the peaks and great vessels by the relative timing of their phases of expansion and contraction

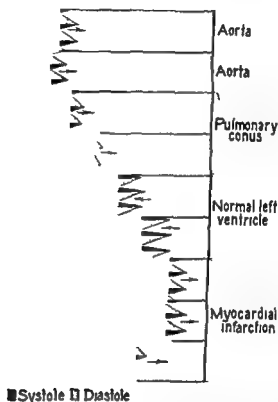


FIG. 30.—The left lateral portion of a roentgenokymogram in a patient with an anterolateral infarct to show the details of the diastolic pulsations in the various portions of the heart and great vessels. On close inspection of the volume pulsations left ventricle contracts a true for the pulmonary

ventricles

(5) *Inguicardiography*—The vessels near the heart and the chambers of the heart may be visualized by variations in size or shape when radiopaque materials injected into the coronary arteries. The serial roentgenographic films or kymographs. The radiopaque material, usually a concentrated organic solution of iodine, is injected rapidly

greater clinical value. Until such time both diastolic blood pressures should be recorded. Such a blood pressure would be recorded as follows:

$$\frac{160}{90-80} \text{ or } 160/90/80$$

160 = systolic blood pressure

90 = diastolic blood pressure at beginning of fourth phase

80 = diastolic blood pressure at beginning of fifth phase

In persons in whom the sounds do not disappear it will be found that the beginning of a fifth phase can be estimated, that is, at a point when the fourth phase sounds show a definite change in intensity.

It is extremely important to record and interpret blood pressure measurements properly. Remember that arterial blood pressure is exceedingly and necessarily variable. A recording at any one moment merely indicates the arterial blood pressure for that moment, that is, when the patient is sitting near the physician with his arm on the doctor's desk. This is no

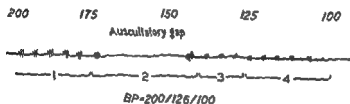


FIG. 32 Diagram illustrating the auscultatory gap. This is often a cause for error in careless recording of arterial blood pressure. Consult the text.

index of what it is when the patient is emotionally upset, digging a ditch, running a dash, or sleeping soundly in bed at 3 o'clock in the morning. It is unfortunate that a continuous recording is not possible.

When compared to a blood pressure that remains elevated night and day. Furthermore, a blood pressure of 160/80 in a patient with senile arteriosclerosis may be considered insignificant when recorded in the morning.

When a man runs for a street car, it may

easily rupture a weakened vessel.

the pressure at that moment or

variations of the systolic pressure.

he may be adequately

likely to produce

vascular accidents.

For most purposes, a

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the physician wants to

may result in fatal cardio-

Measurement of the Arterial Blood Pressure—The patient should be seated comfortably and relaxed. There should be no constricting clothing about the arm or limb to be examined. The standard blood pressure cuff (12 cm in width) is wrapped snugly around the slightly abducted arm. The pressure within the cuff is rapidly elevated to 250 to 300 mm of mercury and the radial artery is palpated (*palpatory method*). The pressure at which the pulse at the wrist or ankle just returns is recorded as the systolic blood pressure. This procedure should always be employed first for orientation and, as a check of the next method (*auscultatory*). The pressure within the cuff is again raised quickly to 250 or 300 mm of mercury and the region of the brachial artery at the antecubital space below the cuff is auscultated with a stethoscope, while the physician listens for the *Korotkoff* sounds. The pressure within the cuff is slowly reduced until the

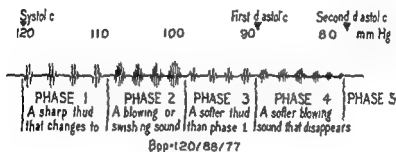


FIG. 31—Diagram illustrating the *Korotkoff* sounds and various phases observed during measurement of intra-arterial blood pressure. Consult the text for details.

first sounds appear (the beginning of *first phase*). The pressure (mm mercury) in the sphygmomanometer at that moment is recorded as the *systolic blood pressure*. As the pressure in the pneumatic cuff is gradually reduced the sounds then change (Fig. 31) from a sharp thud to a blowing or swishing sound (the *second phase*). With further slow reduction in pressure in the cuff the sounds then change again to a sharp sound or thud (*third phase*) that is not as intense as the sounds of phase one. The sounds then become blowing and relatively low in intensity (*fourth phase*). As the pressure in the cuff is reduced further the sounds remain of the same general quality but become fainter and fainter and finally disappear (*fifth phase*). The final disappearance of the sounds may occur suddenly in some individuals or gradually or not at all in others. The *diastolic blood pressure* is recorded by some clinicians as the pressure within the cuff at the moment of change from the *third to the fourth phase* and by others, including our group, at the *change from the fourth to the fifth phase*, that is, when the sounds finally disappear. Which of these is more correct is not known. Clinical correlations and years of follow-up studies will finally indicate which has the

tricular node. Alternations in force of contraction due to bigeminy produced by premature contractions would not be considered true pulsus alternans. In true pulsus alternans it is noted that when the pressure in the blood pressure cuff is reduced to record the systolic pressure the first phase with sharp sounds appears at a rate which is half the cardiac rate. As the pressure in the cuff is further reduced the sounds double in rate or equal the cardiac rate in number. These later appearing sounds are of less intensity than the alternating ones that appeared at the higher pressure. All through the various phases when the two groups of sounds exist together they alternate in intensity. As the pressure in the cuff is further reduced and the pulsus alternans exists to a high degree it will be found that the sounds of greater intensity pass through the various phases of the Korotkoff sounds before the alternating ones of lesser intensity. Therefore the sounds of the greater intensity pass into the fifth phase or disappear before those of lesser intensity (Fig. 33). The degree of pulsus alternans is expressed quantitatively as the difference in systolic pressure levels between the appearance of the two groups of sounds. For example suppose the more intense sounds appear at a pressure of 180 mm. of mercury and the weaker ones appear or the sounds double in rate when the cuff pressure is lowered to 160 mm. of mercury then the alternation is

$$180 - 160 = 20 \text{ mm. mercury}$$

The patient is then said to have an alternation of 20 mm. of mercury. The greater the pressure difference the more severe the alternation and the worse the prognosis. Normally there is no alternation.

Pulsus alternans is frequently missed because it is too slight to detect by ordinary clinical practices when the pressure in the cuff is reduced too rapidly. Obviously when an alternation of 2 or 3 mm. of mercury exists it is easily overlooked unless the cuff pressure is reduced slowly.

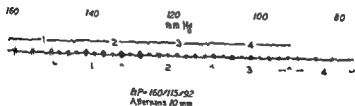


Fig. 33 Diagram illustrating the Korotkoff sounds in a patient with pulsus alternans. The alternate more forceful pressure is the stronger sound.

This requires effort, time and patience. Many measurements may have to be made before a stabilized level is attained.

During the recording of blood pressure certain *technical errors* may be encountered.

(a) *The auscultatory gap* (Fig. 32). In some subjects for no apparent reason the blowing sounds of the second phase may not be present for certain pressure levels within the cuff. This interval of no sound is known as the *auscultatory gap*. Should the pressure cuff be elevated insufficiently, that is, to within the level of the auscultatory gap, the appearance of *second phase* sounds at the lower pressure levels will be erroneously considered the onset of the first phase and recorded as the systolic blood pressure (Fig. 31). To avoid this error it is necessary: (1) always to inflate the blood pressure cuff to high levels and (2) to listen attentively to the character of the sounds that first appear as the cuff pressure is reduced. If they are not sharp, the determination should be repeated and the cuff should be inflated to a pressure of 240 mm. or more of mercury.

(b) *Relatively narrow cuff*. When the blood pressure cuff is too narrow erroneously high pressures may be recorded. This is likely to occur in obese people with fat arms and legs. Special wide cuffs may be obtained for these people. If a wide cuff is not available the regular one may be bandaged snugly in place (not to constrict the circulation) by first putting the cuff on and then wrapping it in place with ordinary 3 inch roller bandage.

(c) *Metal ribbed cuffs*. When the cuffs with metal ribs which snap in place are used they must be placed properly. The arrows on the cuff indicate where it should be placed in relation to the artery.

(d) *Ineroid type of manometer*. The ineroid manometers frequently change in sensitivity and must be recalibrated. They should therefore be checked every six months against a mercury manometer.

(e) *Insufficient relaxation of the patient*. Patients are usually psychically disturbed when visiting their doctor, especially during a first visit. Pressures should therefore be recorded frequently at each visit and especially after quieting the patient. In order to interpret the significance of any one value the other determinations must be taken into consideration.

(f) *Rapid reduction of pressure in cuff*. Remember that the cardiac cycle or the pulse wave lasts approximately 0.8 second at ordinary resting heart rates. Therefore if the pressure in the cuff is reduced rapidly, that is several mm. of mercury between two beats, the true systolic or diastolic value will be missed. Reduce the pressure slowly, make a tentative recording and repeat the procedure reducing the pressure in the cuff especially slowly when the previously recorded values are approached. A true value will thus be obtained.

Now that some of the problems of recording the blood pressure have been discussed, *pulsus alternans* should be reconsidered. When a patient presents an alternating pulse, a cardiac systole of strong force alternates with one of weak or lesser force. The contractions appear *entire* as they must for they are initiated by the same pacemaker, usually the sino-

and, dramatically, by nitroglycerin placed sublingually. It does not last over fifteen minutes and usually only three or four minutes.

The typical pain of coronary occlusion is of the same character and distribution but usually more severe and of much longer duration. The pain of myocardial infarction is not usually relieved by rest or nitroglycerine often associated with pulse and reduction of friction rubs, fever leukocytosis and an increase in the rate of sedimentation of the erythrocytes usually occur by the next twenty-four hours and last a few days. The sedimentation rate is the last of these to return to normal.

When the *e* syndromes are present in the classical picture there is no doubt that cardiac disease exists. However, about 30 to 35 per cent or more of the patients with these clinical states will not present a classical picture.

13 Generalized and Symmetric Venous Hypertension—A definite symmetric and equal elevation of venous pressure in all veins is usually due to heart disease. The venous pressure should be elevated to at least 200 mm. water. This is associated with distended neck veins when the patient is erect. There is usually a large liver and there may be dependent edema, ascites or pleural effusion. These are most often due to right ventricular congestive heart failure but may be due to constrictive pericardial effusion, cardiac tamponade from intrapericardial hemorrhage or a network of Chiari. Mediastinal tumors, adhesions, thrombosis of the superior and inferior vena cava and the like are unlikely, if ever, to produce equal obstruction of both vena cava and result in equal elevation in venous pressure in the tributaries of both.

Venous Pressure Measurements—It is appropriate to discuss here certain methods of measuring venous pressure which have practical clinical application.

1 Indirect Phlebomanometry (a) Method of Lewis In the normal subject the external jugular veins are collapsed above the level of the suprasternal angle. If these veins are distended above this level, it indicates increased venous pressure. In fact the distention of the veins 1 cm. under certain conditions indicates

increased venous pressure.

(b) Method of Garrison A simple method of measuring the venous pressure in the veins of the limbs is to lower the extended hand or foot slowly and allow the veins to fill then raise them slowly until the veins just collapse. The level at which this collapse occurs can be located sharply if the veins are conspicuous. The difference between this level and the heart level or phlebostatic axis in millimeters is essentially the venous pressure in millimeters of blood in that vein. This method is simple and practical.

(c) Method of Brown

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is at heart his body. Not.

An alternation of 2-3 or even 5 mm. of mercury exists in many patients with left ventricular congestive heart failure yet rarely does one encounter a clinical record with pulsus alternans noted. *Therefore* record all blood pressure slowly carefully patiently and with a consideration equal to its importance. *Remember that pulsus alternans is of extreme clinical importance in diagnosis, prognosis and therapy.*

6 **Pericardial Friction Rub** — A pericardial friction rub is a definite sign of heart disease as it indicates a diseased pericardium which is in extremely important part of the heart. Care must be taken to avoid confusing this with a pleural friction rub of pleuritis near the heart. The diagnostic criteria may be found in any standard textbook on physical diagnosis.

7 **Diastolic Murmur** — A diastolic murmur indicates heart disease. The principal exception to this rule is a basal diastolic murmur which occurs during the last trimester of pregnancy. The murmur disappears dramatically upon delivery. When doubt exists about a basal diastolic murmur in a patient during pregnancy it is advisable to reserve a definite opinion until after delivery. *Systolic murmurs are not reliable signs of heart disease.*

8 **Thrills** — Turbulence of flow in the heart which is sufficiently great to be palpated as a *thrill* whether it be systolic or diastolic in time is a definite sign of heart disease. It must be a definite thrill or purr and not a vibration of the anterior thoracic wall from vigorous heart action such as might occur in a patient with a thin chest and tachycardia.

9 **Generalized Senile Arteriosclerosis** — Any patient with generalized arteriosclerosis must have coronary sclerosis at least by inference. Although such a patient may have no cardiac abnormalities otherwise he should be considered clinically to have cardiac disease and should be treated accordingly. Such management would certainly prolong the lives of many elderly people who resent aging and fail to do so gracefully. It is necessary that they resign themselves to the necessity of reducing their activity in accordance with their cardiac capacity.

10 **Thyrotoxicosis (Graves Disease)** — Severe hyperthyroidism of several months duration should be considered as having produced heart disease. There are some clinicians who feel that a normal heart will not become diseased from uncomplicated thyrotoxicosis. Experience has shown however that there usually is cardiac disease in these patients. With early and adequate treatment this type of disease is reversible.

11 **Myxedema** — Myxedema which is definite and accompanied by the classical clinical manifestations must be associated with cardiac disease. This type of disease of course is easily reversible if treated early.

12 **Classical Heberden Pain** — *True or classical Heberden type of pain* such as seen in classical *angina pectoris* is definite evidence of heart disease. This pain is squeezing or vice like, located over the precordium and referred to the epigastrium and along the ulnar side of the left arm into the fourth and fifth fingers. It may be referred to the left shoulder or left side of the head and neck. The pain occurs on exertion and is relieved by rest.

level. The vein is brought to the phlebostatic axis or phlebostatic level. The needle (24 to 26 gauge) is inserted into the vein. Once the needle enters the vein the venous pressure begins to force blood into the needle and the meniscus of the citrate solution in the adapter begins to move away from the vein. The pressure in the system is then increased by means of the screw and pressure bulb in order to increase the air pressure against the meniscus. The pressure in the phlebotonometer is increased until the meniscus is brought to a standstill. At that moment the pressure in the pneumatic system of the phlebotonometer is equal to the pressure in the veins or venous pressure. The pressure in the manometer is recorded as the venous pressure. Since the pressure is read with the meniscus at a standstill, small needles can be used with absolute accuracy.

The method is simple. The manometer can be placed anywhere that is on a table near the patient's bed, on a shelf above the patient, or at any convenient place. The operation is no more difficult than an intradermal injection since the adapter and needle alone need be manipulated like any tuberculin syringe. Because the needle is small it is possible to make measurements in small veins where pressure values are often most desired.

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Diastolic hypertension for prolonged periods of time (eighteen months or more) indicates heart disease. It is unlikely that a person who persistently has a diastolic blood pressure over 100 mm mercury will have a normal heart. Not only does the hypertension itself produce strain on the left ventricle but the arteriolar disease, renal dysfunction and other associated disturbances impair myocardial function.

1) **Severe Anemia** Anemia with less than 50 percent circulating hemoglobin of several weeks' duration indicates heart disease. This results in impairment of myocardial metabolism and hemodynamic function with increased cardiac work.

2) **Protodiastolic Gallop Rhythm** Definite protodiastolic gallop rhythm indicates weakness of the ventricular muscle. It is important that one is not concerned merely with

mally, the veins of the dorsal surface of the hand which is on the thigh are collapsed and those that are on the dorsal surface of the hand on the table are distended. If the veins of both hands are distended, there is *venous hypertension*, if the veins of both are collapsed, there is *venous hypotension*.

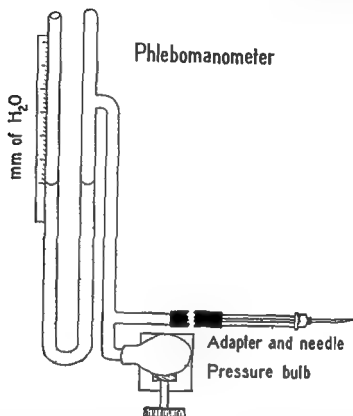


Fig. 34 A diagram of the *Phlebomanometer*. For recording a venous pressure the vein is brought to the phlebotatic level and passively held there. A column of sterile 2 per cent sodium citrate solution is drawn into the distal third or half of the glass adapter by creating a negative pressure in the system with the screw and pressure bulb. The pressure in the system is then readjusted to zero. The needle is inserted into the vein being studied and the pressure within the vein slowly forces blood into the adapter thereby moving the meniscus of the sodium citrate outward. The pressure within the system is slowly increased until the meniscus comes to a stand-still. At this time the pressure within the *Phlebomanometer* is equal to the pressure within the vein. The pressure in millimeters of water in the manometer is recorded as the venous pressure.

2. Direct Phlebomanometry The phlebomanometer (Fig. 34) is a simple, accurate and direct method for measuring venous pressure. A column of sterile 2 per cent sodium citrate solution in water is drawn about half way up the adapter by creating a negative pressure with the pressure bulb. The pressure in the system is then brought to atmospheric pressure, zero.

These may be found in monographs on electrocardiography and will not be discussed here

DIAGNOSIS OF HEART DISEASE

When one or more of the *pathognomonic* signs of heart disease has been elicited a diagnosis of *heart disease* can be made. After making a diagnosis of heart disease, the physician is obligated to make at least five additional diagnoses

(a) **Etiologic** — The attending physician must find the cause of the heart disease if he intends to institute the proper type of therapy. In the treatment of any type of heart disease the removal of the cause or causes when possible is of paramount importance. Many forms of heart disease are reversible when the cause is removable. Furthermore a knowledge of the etiologic factor makes it possible to render a more accurate prognosis. Consult the Appendix for a list of the etiologic factors concerned with heart disease

(b) **Anatomic** — An anatomic diagnosis must be made. It is essential to indicate in the diagnosis the morphologic or structural changes that have occurred as a result of the action of the etiologic agents. These structural changes should be definite, clear and concisely written. This diagnosis makes it possible to visualize and correlate properly the structural changes associated with the functional disturbances of the diseased heart (see Appendix)

(c) **Physiologic** — The physiologic state of the heart should be known. The manner in which the cardiac physiologic state has been disturbed by the cardiac disease should be evaluated. The observer should consider (1) the nature of the cardiac mechanism, (2) the functional state of the myocardium, that is whether or not failure exists, and (3) the disturbance in hemodynamics or the flow of blood (see Appendix)

(d) **Functional** — The functional capacity of the heart should be surveyed and recorded. It is impossible to evaluate the cardiac reserve quantitatively. The most accurate practical classification is as follows:

Class I — Any patient who is able to carry on his normal activity or that which any average normal person of his type should be expected to perform is said to be in *functional Class I*

Class II — Any patient in whom moderate or extreme exertion brings on cardiac symptoms such as dyspnea, palpitation, weakness or cardiac pain is considered to be in *functional Class II*

Class III — A patient is in *functional Class III* if he can perform the bare necessities of life such as dressing, eating or walking slowly around the house without experiencing any cardiac discomfort

Class IV — Any patient who is free from cardiac symptoms only when resting in bed is said to be in *functional Class IV*. Patients in this class are said to have *cardiac function*

The Backward Failure Concept With failure of the ventricle to pump blood outward it accumulates proximally in the atrium and veins. This results in an increase in venous pressure, impairment of blood flow, and venous stasis and edema in the strum. With the increase in hydrostatic pressure there is loss of plasma water and electrolytes into the interstitial spaces with formation of edema. Furthermore because of the venous stasis anoxia of the capillary endothelium develops with an associated increase in capillary permeability and more edema. These factors produce generalized edema, pleural fluid and ascites, engorgement of the hepatic sinusoids and hepatomegaly and generalized venous hypertension with engorgement of the veins of the neck.

The Forward Failure Concept With failure of the ventricle there is insufficient supply of blood to the tissues and resultant anoxia of the capillary endothelium leading to an increase in capillary permeability. Formation of edema ensues. Impairment of blood flow to the tissues and a decline in *vis a tergo* produces stasis of blood in the peripheral blood vessels and further anoxia.

There were some observers who considered congestive heart failure to be the result of both factors: i.e. backward and forward failure. The con-

cept that the mechanism of the syndrome was not established. They pointed out certain incompatibilities especially in the backward failure concept some of which include

(1) Venous pressure has been shown to be extremely elevated in the absence of any significant amount of edema, for example over 100 mm. of water pressure in the legs following ligation of the inferior vena cava, cardiac tamponade due to pericardial effusion or concretion cordis with venous hypertension without edema.

(2) Many anoxic states such as occur with congenital heart disease, pulmonary disease or high altitude are known to exist in the absence of edema or the syndrome of congestive heart failure.

(3) Cardiac output a factor difficult to evaluate.

MECHANISM OF THE SYNDROME

A patient with aortic disease and arteriovenous anastomosis will have a reduction of his cardiac output from the previously extra high level to a lower level when he develops congestive failure. Although the lower level is too low to meet the circulatory needs of the tissues and the associated disease state so that the syndrome of congestive heart failure develops because of relative circulatory insufficiency, the new abnormally low level of cardiac output is still within the normal range.

common practice. Such a diagnosis is vague and carries no evaluation of the anatomic change, cardiac mechanism, severity, functional state or therapeutic class. Remember there is only one satisfactory cardiac diagnosis and that is one which is *complete and detailed* as previously outlined. The physician must visualize the cardiac status completely, thus forming a mental picture of the anatomic and physiologic disturbances present. He should form a mental projection of the histologic changes, disturbances in blood flow that are occurring within the heart and vascular system in general, as well as other alterations in the cardiac state.

HEART FAILURE

Prior to a discussion of cardiac symptomatology, the criteria for diagnosis and the classification of heart failure will be briefly presented.

Heart failure is divided into two clinical types:

- 1 Anginal
- 2 Congestive

1 **Anginal Failure** is exemplified by (a) *angina pectoris* and (b) *coronary occlusion* with myocardial infarction. These have already been mentioned and will be discussed in more detail later. This type of failure is often referred to as *coronary failure* or *coronary insufficiency* or a failure to supply an adequate amount of blood to the myocardium.

2 **Congestive Heart Failure**—This is produced by failure of the myocardium to perform its main function as a pump. It is synonymous with *myocardial insufficiency*.

Congestive heart failure may be

- 1 *Left ventricular*
- B *Right ventricular or*
- C *Combined left and right ventricular*

The physiology of heart failure or the several theories advanced today to explain the mechanism will not be discussed here. It will be assumed that the reader possesses this necessary information before he progresses further with this discussion.

MECHANISM OF CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE

Because congestive heart failure is such a common clinical syndrome and

the mechanism of chronic congestive heart failure was clearly unknown, it is now realized that it is not known. Congestive heart failure is an extremely complex physiologic state limited almost entirely, if not exclusively, to man. It is under intensive study today.

Up to a few years ago there were advanced two *classical* concepts of the mechanism of congestive heart failure. They were essentially as follows:

The Backward Failure Concept With failure of the ventricle to pump blood onward it accumulates proximally in the stream and veins. This results in an increase in venous pressure, impairment of blood flow and venous stasis and edema in the stream. With the increase in hydrostatic pressure there is loss of plasma water and electrolytes into the interstitial spaces with formation of edema. Furthermore because of the venous stasis anoxia of the capillary endothelium develops with an associated increase in capillary permeability and more edema. These factors produce generalized edema, pleural fluid and ascites, engorgement of the hepatic sinusoids and hepatomegaly and generalized venous hypertension with engorgement of the veins of the neck.

The Forward Failure Concept With failure of the ventricle there is insufficient supply of blood to the tissues and resultant anoxia of the capillary endothelium leading to an increase in capillary permeability. Formation of edema ensues. Impairment of blood flow to the tissues and a decline in *sic a tergo* produces stasis of blood in the peripheral blood vessels and further anoxia.

There were some observers who considered congestive heart failure to be the result of both factors, i.e., backward and forward failure. The consensus was in favor of the Backward Failure Concept.

Although the backward failure mechanism was formerly generally accepted and still is by some investigators today, there were others who were of the opinion that the mechanism of the syndrome was not established. They pointed out certain incompatibilities, especially in the backward failure concept, some of which include:

(1) Venous pressure has been shown to be extremely elevated in the absence of any significant amount of edema, for example, over 100 mm. of water pressure in the legs following ligation of the inferior vena cava, cardiac tamponade due to pericardial effusion or concretion cordis with venous hypertension without edema.

(2) Many anoxic states, such as occur with congenital heart disease, pulmonary disease or high altitude, are known to exist in the absence of edema or the syndrome of congestive heart failure.

(3) Cardiac fluid, a factor difficult to exhibit as a factor.

... disease and arteriovenous anastomosis will have a reduction of his cardiac output from the previously extra high level to a lower level when he develops congestive heart failure. Although the lower level of cardiac output is still within the normal range for the tissues and the associated heart failure develop. ... insufficiency, the new abnormally low level of cardiac output is still within the normal range.

With *low output failure* the cardiac disease is associated with or due to disease states which do not necessarily modify cardiac output until the heart fails. With *cardiac failure* the output of the heart declines from a normal level to a *low one*. This new level is below the normal range and results in circulatory insufficiency and the syndrome of congestive heart failure.

Whether or not these concepts of low and high output failure actually explain the physiologic observations remains to be fully established. It is true, however, that patients in heart failure may have a cardiac output

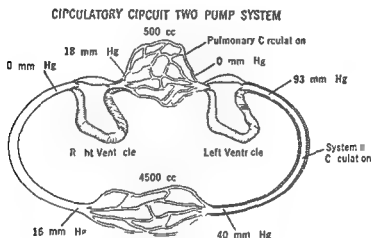


FIG. 35—Courtesy Am Heart J 41:92, 1951

within normal range. Because of considerable discrepancies in measurement of cardiac output due to inaccuracies in the method of measurement, differences in stages of the disease, and therapeutic factors active within the patient at the time, the role of cardiac output in the syndrome of chronic congestive failure is not clearly established.

Furthermore, therapeutic procedures not known to improve cardiac output will improve the clinical syndrome of congestive heart failure, for example, mercurial diuretics and restriction of sodium intake. Again, cardiac output has been observed to remain unchanged or actually to decline when the patient is improving from his failure.

(4) The edema fluid is essentially an ultra filtrate of the plasma with about 0.5 Gm proteins per 100 cc. If capillary permeability were increased, as is conjectured in the backward or forward failure concepts, there should be an increase in the protein content.

(5) Again, almost the complete syndrome of failure is produced by administration of *desoxycorticosterone acetate*, which is not known to have significant cardiac action.

These and other observed phenomena have cast doubt upon the backward failure concept or the dam in the stream concept and have resulted in reconsideration of the mechanism of congestive heart failure.

From the hemodynamic point of view, the dam in the stream mechanism for the increase in venous pressure and the syndrome does not seem tenable. Details of the arguments invalidating a dam in the stream concept may be found in the medical literature. These arguments may be summarized briefly as follows:

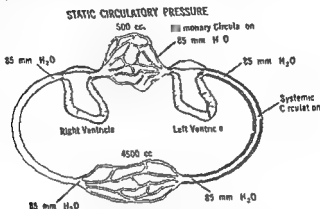


FIG 36—Courtesy Am Heart J 41 978 1951

The circulatory system may be represented as a circuit containing two pumps, right and left ventricles, separated by the pulmonary and systemic circulations (Fig 36). Normally, the two ventricles pump an equal volume of blood. If, for example, each ventricle ejects 60 cc per stroke and they pump normally, they will maintain the pressure gradient and distribution of volume of blood around the circulatory circuit as indicated by Fig 35. If both ventricles or pumps failed simultaneously and completely, the circulation would stop and the pressure throughout the circulatory circuit would become static at about 85 mm H₂O (Fig 36), the mean systemic pressure of Weber. The blood volume is only slightly redistributed, relatively small changes in each branch of the circuit.

become reestablished

Should the right ventricle fail and pump less blood, for example, 39 cc per stroke, while the left ventricle continues to function normally, pumping 60 cc per stroke, more blood (1 cc per stroke) will be removed from the pulmonary system by the left ventricle than is pumped into it by the right one. After a few minutes or relatively few beats, 5 minutes with a cardiac rate of 100 per minute, if this differential could be maintained, the pulmonary circuit would be emptied of its 500 cc of blood, and no more blood would be removed from the pulmonary system by the left ventricle than is

delivered to the pulmonary system by the right, i. e., the left ventricular stroke volume would decline to that of the right ventricle 59 cc. Blood would have been shifted from the pulmonary circuit into the systemic one. If the entire 500 cc. in the pulmonary system were shifted into the systemic portion of the circulatory circuit venous pressure would not be expected to increase on that basis alone provided the venous system were functioning normally. It is well known that man can receive 500 cc. or more of blood in transfusion with little or no increase in venous pressure. This blood, incidentally, is shifted to the venous portion of the systemic vessels which is the large reservoir for blood in the body. Therefore the dam in the stream cannot in itself be responsible for the increase in venous pressure seen in congestive heart failure. That the venous pressure is increased with failure of the right ventricle is established and, therefore must be explained by some mechanism other than merely failure of the right ventricle to pump blood into the pulmonary vessels.

The only possible mechanisms for the increase in venous pressure would then be either or both

- (1) Increase in blood volume in the veins
- (2) Increase in venous tone or tightness with which the veins squeeze upon the blood within

Since congestive heart failure may be associated with little or no change in blood volume, the venous tone must therefore be responsible for the increase in venous pressure. That an increase in venous tone is primarily responsible for the increase in venous pressure remains to be demonstrated experimentally even though this is logically so. In fact by the same logic presented previously the increase in venous pressure that follows complete obstruction of the superior and inferior venæ cavae is not due to a dam in the stream but rather to an increase in venous tone.

Accumulation of edema fluid throughout the body in association with the increase in venous pressure cannot be due solely to an increase in hydrostatic pressure. As already indicated with other hemodynamic and physiologic functions normal high venous pressure alone does not produce severe edema. Accumulation of water and electrolytes in chronic congestive heart failure must be due to alteration in renal function; this will be discussed later.

Conditions are somewhat different for failure of the left ventricle. If the left ventricle fails and begins to eject 59 cc. per stroke while the right ventricle continues to pump a normal amount (100 cc. per stroke) then 41 cc. of blood would be shifted from the systemic venous side of the circulation and placed in the pulmonary system. If the heart rate is 100 per minute 500 cc. would accumulate in the pulmonary system every 5 minutes. Because there is a relatively large venous reservoir from which to draw the pulmonary system could become congested with blood with resultant acute pulmonary edema and dyspnea, acute left ventricular failure. Thus a dam in the stream on the left side of the heart can produce congestive failure. This is seen with mitral stenosis, a mechanical dam or obstruction to blood flow.

The rate with which the blood would be shifted with either right or left ventricular failure would be determined by the heart rate and the degree of difference between the stroke volume of the two ventricles. It is evident that a small fraction of a cubic centimeter difference could produce serious difficulty in a relatively short time and still no existing method is able today for measuring stroke volume of the ventricles could detect the difference a serious shortcoming in the study of the pumping functions of the heart.

The kidneys play an important role in the development of the syndrome of chronic congestive heart failure. The evidence for this is considerable. It is known that the electrolytes and water accumulated in congestive heart failure are excreted by the kidneys.

Fluid must have developed because of reduction in renal output. But why and how the kidneys fail to excrete the electrolytes and water remain unknown. The published data vary considerably because of variations in the doses of the drugs used.

It is known that the kidneys excrete the electrolytes and water in proportion to the degree of retention. This is true whether the retention is due to primary renal disease or dysfunction because during severe and progressing failure the kidneys will excrete substantial amounts of the excess fluid.

It is during congestive heart failure. But no definite chemical factor has been shown to be responsible for the altered renal function.

The medical literature should be consulted for details of the researches on renal function in congestive heart failure as well as other aspects of this complex and still unsolved clinical syndrome. Although the mechanism of chronic congestive heart failure is not clear it appears that the syndrome develops in the following general manner.

First there is failure of the heart as a pump. When the heart fails to circulate an adequate amount of blood to the tissues for a fairly long period of time there is set into motion a chain of events.

- (1) The heart fails to pump blood adequately and the blood accumulates in the tissues.
- (2) The blood accumulates in the tissues and the tissues become congested.

settled. Chemical as well as physical factors such as hydrostatic pressure are involved in retention of the water and electrolytes.

(3) The renal function is altered with a resultant reduction in its excretion of water and electrolytes and other substances found in the urine thus contributing this significant part to the electrolyte and water retention. The renal change is probably the result of hemodynamic changes such as those which produce a reduction in the rate of glomerular filtration and the result of chemical changes which alter renal tubular function. Hormonal factors of either or both adrenal and pituitary gland origin may be responsible in large part for the chemical alterations but this remains to be established. The chemical factors responsible for the altered renal function as well as other changes in metabolism must have varied origins and complex integrations.

It is evident that existing knowledge of the mechanism of congestive heart failure contains numerous gaps. The mechanism for the integration of the many factors await elucidation even the trigger mechanism responsible for the initiation of the syndrome is not known.

Regardless of the mechanism of chronic congestive heart failure the clinician through many years of experience has learned that from the therapeutic and clinical points of view it is easier to consider *right* and *left ventricular congestive failure* in his patients with heart disease. Criteria for the diagnosis of failure of each or both ventricles must be known and elicited in his patient. Even though the mechanisms are obscure and whether or not each ventricle can fail separately he knows that when there exist certain types and degrees of clinical manifestations considered as evidence of ventricular failure administration of specific procedures will achieve the best therapeutic results. This may be considered an empiric approach but it remains the best today even though it is not the preferred one. Therefore in the discussions to follow the most practical present-day clinical approach is adhered to when necessary.

CRITERIA FOR THE DIAGNOSIS OF LEFT AND RIGHT CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE

1. **Left Ventricular Congestive Heart Failure** is associated with all the following signs which are of diagnostic importance:

1. Cardiac dyspnea
 - a. Dyspnea on exertion
 - b. Orthopnea
 - c. Paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnea
 - d. Acute cardiac dyspnea or cardiac asthma
 - e. Cheyne-Stokes respiration

- 2 Decrease in vital capacity
- 3 Accentuated pulmonary second sound
- 4 Roentgenographic abnormalities
 - 1) Limitation of the bases of both lungs
 - 2) Protodiastolic gallop rhythm
 - 3) Pulsus alternans

3 Cardiac Dyspnea — True cardiac dyspnea is a good sign of left ventricular failure. The physician however makes certain that the patient has true cardiac dyspnea. Whenever a history is taken and a patient is simply asked if he has shortness of breath even normal persons are likely to say they do. This is a common complaint among patients. On the other hand true cardiac dyspnea is found only in the patient with heart disease.

The average patient with shortness of breath when questioned closely, may be found to have sighing respiration a reliable sign of psychoneurosis. Sighing respiration is exceedingly important in clinical medicine because of its significance frequently and because it is so frequently a source of confusion in diagnosis. A person who complains of sighing respiration finds that breathing is comfortable but periodically there is the subjective impression that the lungs cannot be filled sufficiently with the associated sensation of suffocation resulting in a deep inspiration. He will take several deep sighing breaths in an attempt to relieve the feeling that the lungs must be more completely filled. If and when an impression of successful filling has been obtained the sense of suffocation disappears and comfort is obtained for a time varying from a few minutes to several days or even weeks whereupon this same experience is repeated. At times this leads to a sensation of panic especially when the patient is already emotionally upset. Since psychoneurosis is present anxiety panic is prone to develop. The episodes are not related to exercise and usually come on while the patient is quiet and motionless or asleep.

a Dyspnea on Exertion

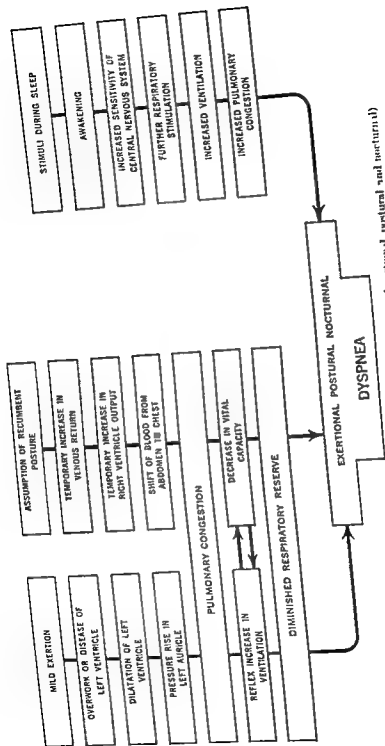
Exertion and in its early stages breathing with a sense of breathlessness or asphyxiation. The patient tends to pant or breathe as though he has just run a race. In severe cases the slightest exertion will precipitate dyspnea. It must be remembered that pulmonary disease and other states produce the same type of dyspnea. As the disease progresses dyspnea is present even at rest and is so severe that the patient has to sit up in bed or against a back rest.

c. State

- 1 There is greater freedom of movement of the ribs and muscles of respiration when the patient is erect. The pump-handle movement of the thoracic cage takes place more freely in the erect position than in the supine one.

- 2 The abdominal viscera gravitate to the pelvis away from the diaphragm allowing freedom of movement of this structure with resultant improvement of the diaphragmatic element of respiration
- 3 Pulmonary edema fluid gravitates to the base of the lungs thus reducing the number of alveoli that are lined with a film of fluid. Instead of having a large alveolar surface coated with a film of fluid which greatly interferes with O_2 and CO_2 exchange, this fluid gravitates to a relatively small number of alveoli thus interfering less with total gaseous exchange
- 4 Venous drainage from the respiratory center in the medulla is improved thus eliminating venous stasis in this vital center and permitting more complete removal of metabolites which interfere with normal respiratory function
- 5 Impairment of venous return from the lower part of the body reduces the engorgement of the venae cavae and right atrium and consequently the load on the right side of the heart and probably in turn on the left ventricle. In brief the load on the heart is decreased
- 6 Hering Breuer reflex is probably less exaggerated since the disturbances in pulmonary elasticity or distensibility are limited to a relatively small portion of the lungs that is at the bases where the fluid gravitates
- 7 A decrease in cerebrospinal fluid pressure in the brain and medullary centers including the respiratory center follows when the patient assumes the erect or sitting position. Increased pressure on the respiratory center may produce dyspnea

c **Paroxysmal Nocturnal Dyspnea** is a good sign of acute left ventricular congestive heart failure. The mechanism for this type of dyspnea is unknown. Many ideas have been advanced but none satisfactorily explains the entire clinical picture (Fig 37). Most clinicians wisely refrain from offering a definite explanation. An interesting concept sometimes advanced is as follows. The left ventricle which is under a strain throughout the day as in hypertension, aortic regurgitation, or impaired coronary flow to the left ventricle recuperates more slowly than the right ventricle when the patient rests in bed and falls asleep. The right ventricle becomes completely rested first and pumps more blood into the pulmonary circuit than the still fatigued left ventricle can remove. This results in congestion of the pulmonary vascular system with acute dyspnea. The patient suddenly awakens is extremely dyspneic and severely apprehensive especially if this is the first experience. He suddenly sits up for relief or may run to an open window or a porch for fresh air. The accompanying fear, panic, running and struggling increase the demands made on the left ventricle. Both ventricles and since the right congestion of blood in the lungs is increased and the patient becomes more frightened and fears that death is near. A vicious cycle is established. This type of dyspnea develops within an hour or two after the patient retires for the night or shortly after he falls asleep.



110 37 -- Diagram of the mechanisms involved in cardiac dyspnea (exertional, postural and nocturnal)

At times the *paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnea* does not appear until the night's sleep is about over that is about 4 or 5 o'clock in the morning. The mechanisms involved are essentially the same as those for the episodes that occur early during sleep. The accumulation of metabolites in the respiratory center produced by the sluggish circulation during sleep plus the added influence of an exciting dream which may precipitate acute failure of the left ventricle further aid in establishing the nocturnal dyspnea. These ideas of mechanism are illustrated diagrammatically in figure 37.

d Acute Cardiac Dyspnea associated with wheezing or asthmatic breath sounds is often referred to as *cardiac asthma*. Any of the acute episodes of cardiac dyspnea of severe left ventricular failure may be associated with

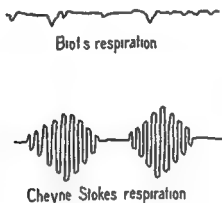


FIG. 38. Illustration of Biot and Cheyne-Stokes types of breathing. The periods of apnea and hyperpnea are apparent.

severe coughing, frothy sputum which is often bloody, and gurgling rales. This is part of the picture of the acute pulmonary edema produced by acute left ventricular congestive heart failure.

Cheyne-Stokes breathing is a special type of periodic respiration which is encountered in many clinical states of which congestive heart failure is but one. The mechanism is not known but the explanation usually given is: Because of heart failure there is impairment of circulation to the respiratory center with anoxia and depression of the center. With depression of respiration metabolites such as CO_2 , lactic acid, etc., accumulate to fairly high levels. Once a sufficient concentration of these chemicals is reached a strong stimulation of respiration results. The respiration rapidly increases in depth and rate, the arterial blood is well oxygenated, and the venous blood is cleared of excess CO_2 . When this occurs the stimulus to respiration is reduced, respiration then decreases in rate and volume with a period of apnea finally setting in. The hyperpnea and apnea alternate in cycles (Fig. 38).

At times the cyclic respiration may be of the Biot type (Fig. 38) instead of a gradual change from the period of hyperpnea to apnea and vice versa the changes are abrupt.

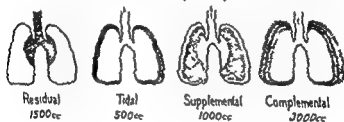
2 A decrease in vital capacity (Fig. 39) accompanies left ventricular failure but it is well to remember that it may occur with many types of pulmonary and other diseases as well. A decrease in vital capacity aids in completing the picture of left ventricular failure and should be measured not only to make a diagnosis of failure but also to follow its progress.

TABLE 1 — NORMAL VITAL CAPACITY

	Men	Women	Athlete
cc per cm height	25.0	20.0	29.0
cc per m ² body surface	2500	2000	2500

3 *Accentuated Pulmonic Second Sound P_2* —With failure of the left ventricle there is an accumulation of blood within the pulmonary veins and arteries. This results in pulmonary hypertension with a greater force which suddenly snaps the pulmonary cusps closed when the right ventricle goes into diastole. This sudden closure of the pulmonary cusps results in an accentuation of P_2 , the pulmonic second sound. It should be pointed

Classification of pulmonary air



1. 2. 3. 4. The stages of pulmonary air volume are represented by the amount of air in the lungs.

out at this point that in the younger age group up to or through adolescence the second pulmonic sound P_2 is louder than the second aortic sound A_2 . As one grows older A_2 becomes louder and P_2 becomes relatively less intense. With senile and senile emphysema P_2 again increases in intensity. The intensity of P_2 is evaluated by its absolute loudness and especially by comparing it with A_2 .

There is an increase in the lungs and homogenous opacity in the lower portion of the pulmonary fields with pleural effusion.

5 *Fine Moist Rales at the Bases Bilaterally* —With the accumulation of fluid in the parenchyma of the lungs with left ventricular failure there result fine moist (*crepitant*) râles. These râles are more or less uniformly and equally distributed throughout the bases of the two lungs and are most evident posteriorly. This sign is particularly important since inflammatory disease of the lungs is not likely to be bilateral and symmetric. It is necessary that the observer rule out *marginal rales* which may be present in a patient confined to bed. The latter type of rales usually disappear if the patient takes a few deep inspirations. The rales of heart failure persist.

6 *Protodiastolic Gallop Rhythm* is a good sign of failure of the left ventricle. The mechanism, classification and diagnosis of gallop rhythm are discussed later (see Heart Sounds and Murmurs).

7 *Pulsus Alternans* is a pathognomonic sign of failure of the left ventricle. Consult the foregoing discussion for the details concerning pulsus alternans.

B Right Ventricular Congestive Heart Failure —Right ventricular heart failure is usually associated with the following manifestations which as a group constitute a diagnostic syndrome, no one of them being diagnostic alone:

- 1 Generalized and symmetric venous hypertension
- 2 Increase in blood volume
- 3 Dependent edema
- 4 Hepatomegaly
- 5 Pleural effusion and ascites
- 6 Anasarca

1 *Venous Hypertension* —The venous pressure is proportionately elevated in all veins. The methods of measurement and evaluation have already been described. Distended neck veins with the patient in the sitting position is a useful sign of increased venous pressure but it must be employed with caution.

2 *Increase in Blood Volume* —This requires special apparatus and therefore is not practical for general clinical use. It is possible that in the future sufficiently accurate and simple methods will be developed for clinical use.

3 *Dependent Edema* —Bilateral and symmetric edema in the lower extremities is usually an early sign of failure of the right ventricle. The edema increases during the day as the patient is up and about and disappears with rest in bed. As the edema becomes more severe it will subside only with bed rest or not at all in the most severe instances of failure. The edema becomes worse as the patient moves around during the day because the effect of gravity is to increase the hydrostatic pressure in the vessel of the feet and increase the force of the intracapillary filtration pressure. When the patient reclines in bed the gravitational force is relieved. Furthermore with rest in bed the demands on the heart and circulation are decreased, the heart rests, the cardiac reserve increases and the manifestations of heart failure subside. There is much evidence to indicate that urine volume and electrolyte excretion are decreased when the subject is in the erect position and increased in the supine position. The

intracellular tissue fluid is mobilized and excreted by the kidneys. The fluid and electrolyte intake also ceases at night. During the day the demand on the heart is greatest; therefore failure is most likely to be pronounced. Furthermore, electrolyte and fluids are being consumed.

4. *Hepatomegaly*—Enlargement of the liver occurs early with failure of the right ventricle. The enlargement is due to congestion within the central veins and sinusoids brought about by the venous hypertension. This leads to distention of the hepatic sinusoids, edema and swelling (cloudy swelling and hydropic degeneration) of the liver cells with resultant hepatomegaly. Enlargement of the liver leads to distention of Gibson's capsule with consequent spontaneous pain or tenderness. The liver in heart failure is diffusely and symmetrically enlarged. This enlargement may be detected on abdominal palpation and may be measured clinically by the distance which the lower edge of the liver is displaced below the costal margin in centimeters or fingerbreadths. Such a quantitation is grossly inaccurate but is exceedingly useful clinically in diagnosis, therapy and in the evaluation of the course of the failure.

5. *Pleural Effusion and Ascites*—The factors causing the edema in the legs or other intercellular spaces also result in an accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal cavity (ascites) and in the pleural spaces (hydrothorax or pleural effusion). This fluid is easily detected on physical examination. The fluid that accumulates in congestive heart failure in the pleural and peritoneal spaces is a *transudate* and not an *exudate*. The former is the result of fluid loss from the blood stream by a process of disturbances in the steady state of intra- and extravascular fluid exchange; the latter is a result of inflammation. Because of the differences between the two types of mechanisms the fluids differ qualitatively (Table 2). Differentiation of these two types of fluids is exceedingly important clinically.

TABLE 2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRANSDATES AND EXUDATES

	Transudate	Exudate
1 Color	Straw yellow	Idiopathic or infectious dissemination of these
2 Transparency	Clear	Infiltration of these
3 Specific gravity	Less than 1.015	Greater than 1.015
4 Clotting	Does not clot	Clots spontaneously
5 Protein content	Less than 2.5 g. per cent	Greater than 3.0 per cent
6 Sugar content	Same as blood	Less than 1.0 per cent
7 Cell content	Few (more than 100 per cent erythrocytes)	Many (type depends upon nature and degree of inflammation)
8 Bacteria	None	Usually present
9 Serum in (Rivalta Test)	Absent	Present

6. *Induration*—When the generalization

5 *Fine Moist Râles at the Bases Bilaterally* —With the accumulation of fluid in the parenchyma of the lungs with left ventricular failure, there result fine moist (*crepitant*) râles. These râles are more or less uniformly and equally distributed throughout the bases of the two lungs and are most evident posteriorly. This sign is particularly important since inflammatory disease of the lungs is not likely to be bilateral and symmetric. It is necessary that the observer rule out *marginal râles* which may be present in a patient confined to bed. The latter type of râles usually disappear if the patient takes a few deep inspirations. The râles of heart failure persist.

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2 *Increase in Blood Volume* —The measurement of blood volume before is not practical if sufficiently accurate.

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300 mm of water near the arteriolar end of the capillary and 390 mm near the venular end. This slight difference is due to the escape of water from the capillary at the arteriolar end with slight concentration of the blood constituents as the blood passes along the capillary. The returning

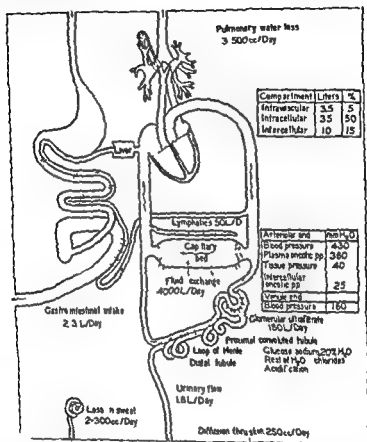


FIG. 40. A diagrammatic presentation of the water compartments and exchange in a normal adult man under basal conditions in a comfortable environment. The forces usually considered in the transfer of water across the capillary membrane are shown. These are average values reduced to the 100 mm Hg level.

pleural effusion and ascites the patient is said to have anasarca. This may occur in severe and advanced right ventricular congestive heart failure. There is usually associated left ventricular failure with edema of the lungs in

—When there is previously for

It is well to remember that any one sign with rare exception is not pathognomonic evidence of congestive failure. It is the accumulation of all or most of them as a group which forms a syndrome diagnostic of failure of one or both ventricles. In the study of a patient with heart disease this should be kept in mind. When the clinician begins to consider the existence of congestive failure he should seek the signs of failure in a systematic manner. To elicit one of the less reliable signs and then suddenly decide that congestive heart failure is present will lead to frequent serious and embarrassing errors in clinical diagnosis and treatment.

INTRA- AND EXTRAVASCULAR FLUID BALANCE

There are a number of factors which are concerned with the exchange of extra- and intravascular fluids. For practical purposes these can be considered to occur solely in the capillaries (Fig. 40).

A Forces Which Tend to Make Fluid Escape from Blood Vessels —

1 *Intracapillary Blood Pressure (hydrostatic pressure)* The intracapillary blood pressure or hydrostatic pressure with the vessel at heart level is about 430 mm. of water at the arteriolar end of the capillary and 160 mm. at the venular end. When the vessels are open and circulation is free these pressure levels are fairly well maintained. This pressure tends to force fluid out of blood vessels. Consequently an increase in this pressure will force greater quantities of fluid into the intercellular spaces.

2 *Colloid Osmotic (Oncotic) Force of the Intercellular Fluid Proteins* — The colloid osmotic force exerted by the intercellular fluid proteins is approximately 25 mm. of water at the arteriolar and venular ends. Colloid osmotic pressure is due mainly to the albumin fraction because of the small size of this molecule. Since the capillary wall is not freely permeable to the protein molecule a much higher concentration is maintained in the blood than in the tissue fluid. Were it freely permeable the differences in protein concentration across the wall would not exist and no pressure gradient would be found. The oncotic force of the plasma proteins almost equals the hydrostatic force of the capillary blood pressure. In edema states associated with lymphatic obstruction there results an accumulation of proteins in the intercellular fluids with an increase in the osmotic force offered by the intercellular fluid. It is well to remember that one of the principal functions of the lymphatics is to return proteins to the blood stream.

B Forces Which Cause Water to Return to the Blood Stream Across the Capillary Wall or Membrane — 1 *Colloid osmotic (oncotic) force of the plasma proteins* The osmotic force offered by the plasma proteins is about

(1) the body as a whole and the environment and (2) the tissues and blood stream. The ideas and explanations presented here include many of the generally accepted ones. They are *grossly inadequate*. Fortunately, the forces concerned with water exchange do not exist as generally presented. If they did it would be a constant edematous condition not discussed today. Nevertheless, because these theories are generally accepted

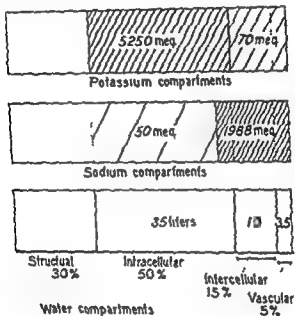


FIG. 41 - A normal

... concentration whereas the average urinary concentration of potassium is about ten times that of the blood. The potassium is primarily intracellular. Therefore there is a fairly rapid flow of potassium through the cellular spaces to reach the urine. These ... states further. The value for

concepts students are called upon to recite them and more important, they contain some truth. Furthermore their inadequacy lead to thought. Modifications have been made in order to approach more accurately the observed facts.

Fluid Intake and Output - It is obvious that ...

... and ...

force of the plasma proteins is about equal to the hydrostatic force exerted by the intracapillary blood pressure.

2 *Tissue pressure* is the pressure or force with which the tissues resist distention or displacement by fluid. It averages about 38 mm. of water but varies a great deal throughout the body (Table 3).

TABLE 3. TISSUE PRESSURE IN MM. OF WATER FOR FOUR COMMON TISSUE SITES IN MAN

	Dorsal Flank	Volar Surface Flank	Pretibial Area	Dorsal of Foot
Maximum	18	21	37	31
Minimum	10	10	54	43
Minimum	8	11	18	15

C *Lymphatics*—Another important means by which fluid is returned to the circulation is by way of the *lymphatics*. These structures play a variable and important role in maintaining normal hydration of the tissues. The lymphatics are mainly responsible for the return to the blood stream of protein molecules that escape through the capillary wall into the tissue spaces. It is estimated that over 90 per cent of the protein molecules that escape into the intercellular spaces are returned to the circulation by way of the lymphatics. Some of the remaining molecules reenter directly into the capillaries as intact protein molecules, and some are split into amino acids by enzymes. Were it not for the lymphatics the oncotic force of the intercellular fluid would reach great heights and man would be edematous (lymphedema) at all times.

D *Capillary Permeability* The degree of capillary permeability influences the state of tissue hydration because it influences the rate of escape of proteins into the intercellular spaces. This additional amount of intercellular fluid protein influences the amount of fluid held outside of the blood vessels by oncotic force. Capillary permeability is difficult, if not almost impossible, to measure. It is concerned with spaces in the wall of the endothelial cells as well as the cement substance and the spaces between the endothelial cells.

E *Electrolytes* It is generally believed that except in acute disturbances electrolytes, crystalloids and water are freely diffusible and therefore are not concerned with osmotic forces. Disturbances in the other factors lead to edema and in turn to shifts of electrolytes among the fluid compartments (Fig. 41) of the body. This may not be true, however. Studies with radiosodium have shown that at least 10 pounds of sodium chloride diffuse back and forth daily across the capillary walls of the normal man. This great turnover makes it necessary to consider these massive shifts in electrolytes whenever edema is encountered. The use of radioactive and stable isotopes as tracer elements may clarify the role of electrolytes. The rôle of the kidneys, still unclarified, is important in regulating the state of hydration and electrolyte balance.

EDEMA

A discussion of cardiac edema cannot be adequate without a brief review of the known mechanisms concerned with the exchange of fluid between

Mechanism of Diffuse Edema—It is evident that in the usual patient with diffuse or generalized edema the mechanism can be focused to a large extent upon the kidneys, that is, there was at some time relative oliguria with intake exceeding output. It is unlikely and almost inconceivable that any person would develop edema from drinking too much fluid, being otherwise entirely normal. Thirst may exist or increase with certain edema states, a fact not impressive clinically, but in the presence of normal functioning kidneys it is unlikely to result in edema. Therefore, diffuse or generalized edema is one or a combination of factors that can be classified thus:

- 1 Renal
- 2 Prerenal
- 3 Postrenal

1 **Renal Edema**—When the disturbance of water and electrolyte excretion (oliguria) resides primarily in the kidneys, the edema is renal. A good example of this type of edema is seen in acute intestinal poisoning. The tubular damage results in severe oliguria or anuria, so that the kidneys are unable to excrete water or other urinary constituents. Thus, except for water lost through the skin, lungs, and other extrarenal sites, all water and salt ingested or administered parenterally by the doctor must be retained. Therefore, the patient develops edema. This is primarily renal in origin. The same mechanism is true in part for acute hemorrhagic nephritis (Fig. 43) with glomerular damage. If no fluid were taken into the body, neither type of patient would develop edema. Cardiac edema (Fig. 42) can conceivably be mainly renal edema.

2 **Prerenal Edema**—When disturbances in formation of urine result in oliguria or reduced urine volume and the fluid intake exceeds the output, not because the kidneys are primarily at fault but because the quantity and quality of the blood reaching the kidneys are reduced and altered respectively or because of local tissue or circulatory changes, prerenal edema develops. Thus the kidneys have an insufficient amount of water with which to urinate or bring into play normal mechanisms to conserve water and electrolytes, and prerenal edema follows. A good example of this type of edema is that seen with acute lymphatic obstruction (Fig. 45). The obstruction of the lymphatics in the legs, for example, results in edema although the kidneys would be capable of excreting the water retained. However, this fluid does not reach the normally functioning kidneys for excretion.

3 **Postrenal Edema**—This type of edema is encountered whenever there is postrenal obstruction to urinary flow sufficiently great to produce oliguria or anuria. A good example of this is that seen in a patient with prostatism and complete urethral obstruction. The urine is not
 excreted
 of u
 fore

from the next over a period of days the balance is steady. It must also be admitted that whenever the intake of water exceeds the output edema to some degree must exist. The degree of edema is a quantitative index of the amount by which fluid intake exceeds fluid output. The most accurate and practical method for measuring the quantity of edema is to weigh the patient. In the average person intake of fluid occurs solely through the mouth and water is lost mainly in the urine. Therefore in simple terms all *general edematous states* can be considered to be an inadequacy of urinary volume so that fluid intake exceeds output. This must be true for urticarial nephritic nephrotic lymphatic and other types of diffuse edema. Since water cannot be stored in the tissues in a hypotonic state electrolytes must also be retained; that is more electrolytes are ingested than are excreted in the urine. It is obvious that a discrepancy between the amount of fluid and electrolytes taken in and that lost in the urine may exist for only a short time. Once the edematous state has developed a new balance between intake and output is established with the patient overhydrated. The problem then becomes one of explaining the mechanism by which less urine is formed for if the intake were to be voluntarily reduced by an amount equal to the oliguria there would be no gain in total body water.

It is well to diverge for a moment to point out that *edema is best defined as a greater than normal amount of intra- or extracellular fluid* and not necessarily an increase in total body water. The latter is usually true in generalized edema. That edema can occur without any gain in total body water is well known to everyone and can be well exemplified by the edema which occurs locally at the site of a bee sting. Fluid and electrolytes are shifted to the area of the sting from other portions of the body. It is also possible for interstitial fluid and electrolytes to exceed the normal amount with edema formation by a shift of water from the intracellular compartment. It must also be remembered that a person may be *physiologically dehydrated and still in a state of edema* and apparent overhydration. This would occur if large amounts of fluid shifted into the tissue spaces from the blood stream and intracellular compartments. Such states of functional dehydration can result in serious clinical disorders.

It is also well to remember that the edema fluid must be *qualitatively different* to some degree from the fluid normally present in that compartment. To date these qualitative differences have received insufficient study. The importance of the differences is acknowledged both physiologically and therapeutically.

When disease states are under consideration such avenues of intake and output as intravenous and subcutaneous therapeutic administration diarrhea vomiting draining wounds fistulae etc. must be properly evaluated as to water and solute exchange. Many patients are made edematous by the doctor who forces water and solutes into the body parenterally for example intravenously when the volume of urine is reduced.

Even though the foregoing mechanisms are generally accepted concepts many observations have been made which cast doubt on their rôle in the development of the edema. As indicated previously, venous ligation often causes extreme elevations (600 or more mm. of water) of the venous pressure in the lower extremities without edema formation. Ordinarily, the edema level in terms of intercuticular venous pressure is 150 mm. of water. Furthermore, the protein content of edema fluid is low, rarely exceeding 0.5 gm. per 100 cc., thus tending to rule out the existence of increased capillary permeability. In addition the plasma proteins are normal or elevated but are rarely low in congestive heart failure. Therefore, in view

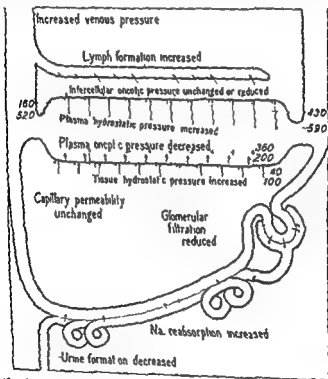


FIG. 42. In congestive heart failure the water exchange process is altered (figure 40) and the water loss to the tissue increases.

"This is also an in-
Whether or not the lat-
venous hypertension or
water loss to the tissue increases

" = pressure (11) =

not become edematous if he ceased to take in fluid simultaneously with the development of the urinary obstruction. With thought the student can classify the various edema states into any one or a combination of the foregoing three categories. A detailed presentation of all the various forms of edema will not be included here; these special considerations will become evident from the discussions which follow.

In the discussions to follow concerning the factors and forces at work in the capillaries and other peripheral vessels it becomes immediately obvious that the body is a whole and the kidneys in particular is involved in all considerations of generalized or diffuse edema. It is impossible to consider all factors or to understand any mechanisms in detail. Edema formation is not well understood even in general terms. It will be noted immediately that some of the factors function as prerenal forces where as others are renal. They must all be properly integrated. Many are erroneous quantitatively and qualitatively is presented. This unfortunately is the result of inadequate data. An attempt has been made to present them here in the most acceptable terms of intra- and extravascular fluid balance. The shortcomings in present day explanations will be obvious to the thoughtful reader.

I. Hormones—There are many hormones many of which are unknown or only slightly understood which aid in regulating the state of hydration by both renal and extrarenal mechanisms. Examples include the fluid and electrolyte regulating hormones of the suprarenal glands. To date little is known about these hormones including their origin, chemical structure and mode of action. The role of antidiuretic and diuretic hormones is not understood in normal and edema states. They offer a fruitful field for research.

In the normal person the foregoing factors are all in a state of activity which maintain normal tissue hydration. The forces involved are indicated in figure 10. It is obvious that if they alone were considered normal man would be on the verge of edema at all times. Simply lowering a part below heart level should produce edema. It is known that this is not true for we see little or no edema of the feet in the normal person. Therefore other factors of considerable importance must control fluid exchange between the blood vessels and tissue fluid. The lymphatics, kidneys, muscles, chemical and physical state of the inter- and intracellular material, etc. must contribute.

Specific Types of Edema—A. **Cardiac Edema**. In congestive heart failure with the development of cardiac edema there result: (1) an increase in venous pressure and capillary hydrostatic pressure which elevates the filtration pressure; (2) circulatory stasis in the peripheral blood vessels which results in anoxia of the capillary epithelium; this contention has been made but it has not been shown to increase capillary permeability; (3) a decrease in blood proteins because of increased dyspepsia and malnutrition resulting in a decreased osmotic force of the plasma proteins; and (4) alteration in renal excretion which accompanies the failure (Fig. 42).

example that starvation is often associated with plasma protein levels well below the edema level in the absence of any edema. Furthermore in many instances edema developed when the blood protein levels exceeded this critical concentration. The other disturbances in nutrition such as impaired intake of the vitamins iron calcium and other essential foods contribute to the edema by influencing capillary permeability and intra- and extracellular electrolyte balance. The renal factor must not be overlooked (Fig. 44).

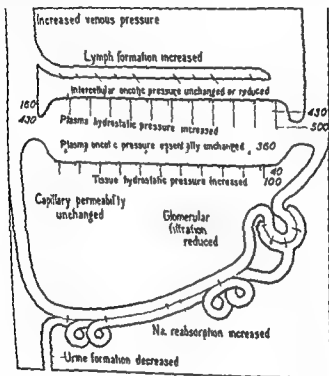


FIG. 43 — A.

The same in the negative heart failure and of proteins indicate the negative forces the solid arrows the forces changed by negative heart failure.

of intercellular protein results in fibrin formation and later interstitial fibrosis and a woody or ligneous nonpitting edema. There is therefore, a local disturbance in the effective colloidal osmotic force of the plasma and intercellular fluid proteins (Fig. 45).

of these inconsistencies a more critical and skeptical interpretation of the mechanism of congestive heart failure is required. The problems of renal and hormonal dysfunction, retention of sodium and water, and increase in blood volume deserve further study.

The role of the lymphatics, with possible impairment of lymphatic contractions and failure of their valves, has received little experimental consideration. In addition to this, the venous hypertension associated with congestive heart failure may play an important role in preventing adequate lymphatic drainage into the venous system. In summary, the mechanism of cardiac edema has not been established. That more water and electrolytes are retained than excreted is definite. The mechanism for this remains unsolved. Reference to the discussion on the mechanism of congestive heart failure will reveal some of the existing concepts.

B Nephritic Edema The generally accepted basic mechanism for the production of edema in acute hemorrhagic nephritis is an increase in capillary permeability. This alleged increase purportedly allows plasma proteins to escape into the tissue spaces, thereby increasing the osmotic pressure of the intercellular fluid and decreasing the osmotic pressure of the plasma. This then results in a decreased effective plasma oncotic pressure with the hydrostatic force less opposed. The outward diffusion of fluid is predominant and edema develops. Such a mechanism is negated by the observation that the protein concentration of interstitial fluids in acute nephritis is not usually increased.

The loss of proteins in the urine aids somewhat in the decrease in plasma proteins. This is not of great importance in the average patient. There is some evidence to suggest that in many patients congestive heart failure plays a prominent role in the formation of edema. It is contended that the edema is firm or rubbery in character and does not pit as readily as other types of edema because of the high protein content of the tissue fluid (Fig. 43). The edema is due in great part to reduced urinary excretion of water and sodium chloride, as in congestive heart failure.

C Nephrotic Edema Nephrotic edema has been said to result from an extreme reduction in plasma proteins with a proportionate fall in the colloid osmotic pressure of the plasma. It is also contended that the total plasma proteins must fall below $5.0 \text{ gm per } 100 \text{ cc}$ of plasma or the albumin fraction to less than $2.0 \text{ gm per } 100 \text{ cc}$ of plasma before the colloid osmotic pressure of the plasma proteins will decline sufficiently to result in edema. The albumin molecule, being the smallest, contributes most to the colloid osmotic forces and therefore a unit change in this fraction results in greater effects than a unit change in the other plasma protein fractions.

Any clinical state which is associated with an extreme decrease in plasma proteins is supposed to result in a nephrotic type of edema. Nutritional edema, with low plasma proteins because of inadequate protein intake or poor assimilation, results in nephrotic edema. Recent studies, however, cast doubt on the generally accepted concepts concerned with nutritional edema and the associated low plasma proteins. It has been found for

levels perceptible by ordinary clinical means it is said to be *latent* or *occult*. Edema is not evident clinically until the part has increased in water content by an amount equal to about 10 per cent of the weight of the part involved. When an edematous area is pressed upon the fluid is displaced locally, leaving an indentation or pitted area thus *pitting* edema. Thin or loose edematous fluid in loose tissue is easily displaced and pits readily, whereas edematous fluid in closely knit tissue pits with difficulty.

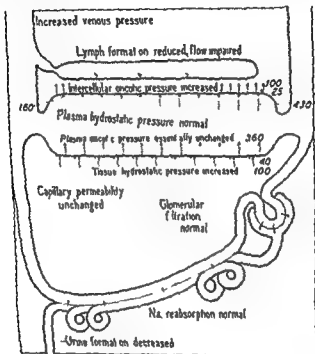


FIG. 43. In *hypertension* the water and electrolyte forces throughout the body are essentially normal (Fig. 40). The *glomerular filtration* is normal.

Tissue Pressure and the Skin.—The significance of the role of *tissue* pressure and the skin in formation of edema increases as the edema fluid increases and the hydrostatic pressure of the tissue fluids rises. The skin serves as a *limiting wall* which tends to prevent further accumulation of fluid in development of edema. In *hypertension* the skin may be densely knit tissues higher tissue pressure per unit area are more subject to

accumulation under lower pressures

E. Inflammatory Edema.—With inflammation there is local vasodilatation, venous stasis, increase in permeability, and lymph-stasis with resultant edema.

F. Thrombophlebitic Edema—The venous obstruction in thrombophlebitis results in an increase in venous pressure in the tributaries not sufficient in itself to cause edema. This must contribute to the formation of edema, however. The inflammation of the veins extends to and involves the adju-

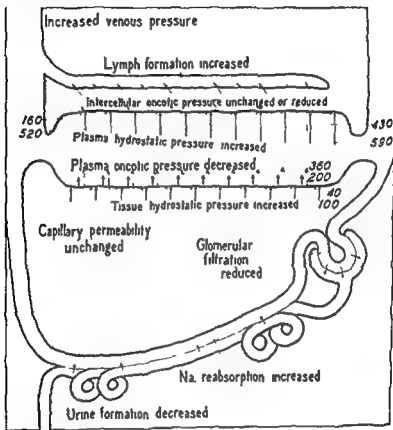


FIG. 44 —The renal factor in true nephrosis is not too well known because this disease is so rare. Most *nephrotic syndromes* are the result of chronic glomerular nephritis. The low plasma proteins with decreased plasma oncotic pressure are believed to favor water loss into the tissues. Severe sodium retention by the kidneys may be a significant factor, however (see text). The behavior of the electrolytes and water in the other portions of the body is much like that in the normal person (Fig. 40). Consult the text for details. The dotted arrows indicate the normal forces, the solid ones the forces changed by nephrotic edema.

cent lymph channels, resulting in lymphangitis, lymphadenitis and lymph-stasis. Impairment of lymph drainage contributes to formation of edema. There also appears to be an arteriolar spasm which may enhance the formation of edema.

General Considerations of Edema.—Edema may be defined as an abnormal amount of fluid in a tissue. When this accumulation is below

Chapter 3

THE APPROACH TO A CLINICAL CARDIAC EVALUATION

The patient with heart disease should be approached for a clinical survey and evaluation in a manner which should be employed for all patients regardless of their problem. The study should always be complete, careful and leisurely enough to permit the proper weighing of all data collected. If this is not done the patient should be informed that the study has not been complete. The circumstances should be explained so that he may decide whether or not he wishes to seek further study elsewhere. All phases and methods of study should be employed. An evaluation based on all methods available today is still inadequate and it is therefore imperative that no method or procedure be withheld from the study unless it is impossible to employ it. No study can be too thorough or detailed. In many instances unfortunately the studies are qualitatively and quantitatively poor.

THE HISTORY

It is not the purpose of this monograph to discuss in detail the method

properly taken is the most important phase of the clinical study. This obviously must include factors such as familial prevalence of heart disease, past illnesses, social circumstances, habits, nutrition and occupation.

Certain symptoms represent common complaints of the patient with cardiac disturbances. The three most frequently mentioned are

1. Precordial pain
2. Dyspnea and
3. Palpitation

1. Pain —

who present

sticking pain

as it may

and usually begins during periods of anxiety or emotional disturbance. If the examiner carefully searches the region of this discomfort, he will almost invariably find a sharply localized area of tenderness.

type of pain

In general, the factors and mechanisms concerned with formation of edema are little known. The metabolism of electrolytes, antidiuretic diuretic and other hormones, and bound water are among many factors that seem to be important but receive relatively little consideration in clinical discussions today.

It should be reiterated that all of the accumulated edema fluid—water and solutes—enter the untreated patient by way of the gastrointestinal tract and most is excreted by the kidneys. In brief, the patient with edema invariably has been in positive water and electrolyte balance at some time. This positive balance is temporary and a new steady state of water and salt exchange both within the body and between the body and its environment is established when the patient becomes edematous. Almost all studies concerned with the mechanism of edema formation fail to include the period of time during which the water and electrolyte accumulations are being established and the factors initiating the edema are at work. Because the resultant edematous state alone is studied, many factors are not observed. The rapid turnover of tremendous quantities of water and electrolytes must be considered in all forms of edema, particularly generalized edema.

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It is therefore imperative that no method or procedure be withheld from the study unless it is impossible to employ it. No study can be too thorough or detailed. In many instances unfortunately the studies are qualitatively and quantitatively poor.

THE HISTORY

It is not the purpose of this monograph to discuss in detail the method for taking an adequate clinical history. This should be common knowledge. Its application in cardiac disease is varied only insofar as the emphasis is on cardiac symptomatology and related problems. The history, when properly taken is the most important phase of the clinical study. This obviously must include factors such as familial prevalence of heart disease, past illnesses, social circumstances, habits, nutrition and occupation.

Certain symptoms represent common complaints of the patient with cardiac disturbances. The three most frequently mentioned are

1. *Precordial pain*
2. *Dyspnea* and
3. *Palpitation*

1. **Pain.** The most common type of discomfort experienced by the patient who presents himself for a cardiac examination is a dull ache or sharp sticking pain over the precordium. This is most often due to psychoneurosis. It may be severe at times. It is not related to exercise or hard work and usually begins during periods of anxiety or emotional disturbance. If the examiner carefully searches the region of this discomfort he will almost invariably find a sharply localized area of tenderness. The type of pain

neurosis. Its cause is unknown. It is possibly a localized area of fibrositis and myositis and even periostitis brought on by increased muscular tone and activity so common in anxiety states. The patient palpates the area so frequently that he often aggravates the soreness.

The pains of *angina pectoris* and *myocardial infarction* have already been described.

Acute pericarditis is often associated with cardiac pain. This is probably due to inflammation of the pericardium and surrounding tissues adjoining the pleura and diaphragm. It is usually a diffuse precordial soreness accentuated by pressure over the precordium and by respiration. It may be referred to the shoulders (usually the left) when the diaphragm is involved.

Acute myocarditis such as is encountered in acute rheumatic fever will often produce precordial soreness and pain. The pain may be sharp and is aggravated by pressure over the heart.

Acute aortitis such as that associated with syphilis will often produce a sense of oppression and discomfort in the substernal region near the base of the heart. This pain is often difficult to distinguish in quality from that of myocardial infarction. It may be referred to the neck and shoulder. The pain is probably due to inflammation of the aorta with disturbances in the circulation through the *vasa vasorum*. There may be infringement of the inflammatory process onto the region of the orifices of the coronaries with resultant impairment of the coronary circulation. Reflex coronary spasm may be partially responsible for the pain. The pain in the latter two circumstances follows *coronary insufficiency* and therefore simulates *angina pectoris*. If an *aneurysm* of the aorta is present the pain may become severe and diffuse depending upon the location and extent of the dilatation.

Severe anemia may produce a similar type of pain due most probably to myocardial anoxia.

The pain of a *dissecting aneurysm* has much the character of myocardial infarction. It is tearing in character, severe and diffuse, being felt over the chest and extending into the back, arms, neck and abdomen and often into the legs. This pain like that in coronary occlusion is severe and persists for many hours to several days if death does not supervene.

Severe cyanosis may produce a type of pain known as *angina hypoxemica*. It occurs in the presence of mitral stenosis if associated with severe cyanosis. This pain is a localized oppression or heaviness in the precordium.

The pain due to neuritis, osteitis or pleuritis might be confusing and therefore deserves consideration during evaluation of the cardiac patient.

2 **Dyspnea**—Dyspnea has already been discussed. One of the early signs of left ventricular congestive heart failure is the presence of dyspnea. As a result of this the patient often finds it necessary to sleep with several pillows in order to be comfortable. This is an important point to check when taking the history.

3 **Palpitation**—Palpitation may be described as consciousness of the heart beat. It is usually but not necessarily associated with tachycardia. Palpitation may exist at normal heart rates or with premature contractions.

The patient who has been told that he has heart disease or who suspects heart disease in himself is extremely conscious of his heart beat and often experiences palpitation. In fact, he may find it almost unbearable to lie on his left side because he is overly conscious of his heart beating against the bed (*trepopena*). Patients with heart disease experience palpitation after the slightest exertion when it should ordinarily only follow severe exercise. Palpitation occurs early in congestive heart failure.

The other symptoms commonly encountered in heart disease are

4. Bckness
5. *Dyspnea*
6. *Cough and expectoration*
7. *Miscellaneous*

4. **Weakness**—Weakness is one of the most common complaints of the cardiac patient. This symptom is rarely emphasized in the standard textbooks and monographs on heart disease. It may vary from ease of fatigability to utter exhaustion in severe cardiac disease. The degree of weakness is directly related to the reduction in the circulation to the tissues. Weakness may be extremely pronounced in the more severe cases.

5. *Epigastric fullness, nausea, constipation, pyrosis* (heart burn) and gradual loss of weight. It varies with the severity of the cardiac disease.

6. **Cough and Expectoration**. These are common complaints in left ventricular failure, tending to be most severe in instances of severe failure. Pressure on the bronchi or trachea by an extremely large heart or aortic aneurysm may produce coughing. Hemoptysis may occur in severe left ventricular congestive heart failure. In acute left ventricular heart failure with pulmonary edema there is an extensive escape of erythrocytes into the pulmonary edema fluid producing hemoptysis. The sputum is usually frothy and is pinkish or red.

7. *Miscellaneous* with hemoptysis. In aneurysm may erode the bronchi or trachea and cause rather extensive hemorrhage with expectoration of pure blood in small or large quantities.

8. **Miscellaneous Symptoms**—There are many symptoms which are related to cardiac dysfunction. Vertigo, insomnia, headache, irritability, nervousness, giddiness, and faintness are among the numerous symptoms experienced by these patients.

THE PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

The examination of a patient with cardiac disease should be as thorough as that for any other patient. The student should acquaint himself thoroughly with physical diagnosis. No attempt will be made here to review completely the problem of physical examination of a patient. A standard monograph on physical diagnosis may be consulted for a more

complete survey of the problem. *The entire physical examination is important, and not one phase can be eliminated.* In the examination of the cardiovascular system, certain phases of the study are of particular importance in interpretation of the state of the heart.

1 General Appearance—The general appearance of the patient, such as his age, sex, nutritional state, skin, pallor, cyanosis, and the like, is observed. The physiologic and chronologic ages of the patient are estimated. Then certain specific types of examinations are made.

2 Pulse—The pulsations of the main arteries available for examination are studied, including the radial, brachial, axillary, femoral, popliteal, dorsalis pedis, posterior tibial, carotid and temporal arteries. They are examined in the same fashion in which the radial artery is usually studied at the bedside. The tips of the four fingers of the examining hand rest upon the radial artery with the index finger distal, while the rest of the hand grasps the patient's wrist. The artery is felt for thickness, tortuosity, compressibility and fullness of the pulse. The circulation through the artery is obstructed by applying firm pressure with the tip of the little finger (fourth) and the radial artery, distally, is explored with the tips of the middle and index fingers. Normally this distal portion is not, or is just barely, perceptible. With thickening of its wall, the artery remains palpable distal to the point of compression. With severe arteriosclerosis, it feels like a rigid tube (*pipe stem*). The student should examine the radial and other arteries of many normal people of all age groups in order to become thoroughly acquainted with the normal variations with age.

The rate and fullness of the pulse are noted. Various types of pulses, depending upon the variations in the volume and timing, are shown in figure 46. Examination for pulsations in the abdominal aorta, iliac, femoral, and popliteal arteries aids in the diagnosis of coarctation of the aorta or thromboembolic phenomena involving these vessels. The former is unlikely to be present or, at least to be of clinical significance, if these arterial vessels pulsate well and it is surely simpler to palpate routinely for them in all patients with arterial hypertension if routine recording of arterial pressure in the legs is not possible.

3 Capillary Pulsations—The capillary pulsations are then observed. This may be done by several methods.

(a) *Pressing down on the edge of the finger or toe nail to produce a small area of blanching of the subungual area.* With pulsations of the capillaries, this blanched area decreases in size with each systolic phase of the pulse and increases during the diastolic phase. Normally this is difficult to observe.

(b) *Transillumination of the finger tips with a small pocket flashlight* will usually reveal some capillary pulsations, the finger tip darkening with each systole.

(c) *Following pressure on the forehead with a glass slide just sufficient to obliterate the skin vessels,* there will be a return of skin color with each systole.

(d) *Vigorous rubbing of the forehead to produce redness* will often show a varying degree of the erythema with each phase of the pulse.



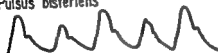
Dicrotic pulse



Anacrotic pulse



Pulsus bisferiens



Alternating pulse



Pulsus bigeminy



Plateau pulse



Corrigan's pulse



Normal pulse

FIG. 46 Diagrammatic representation of various types of pulse waves

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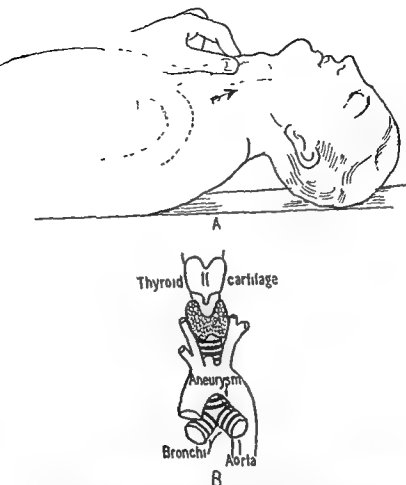


FIG. 47 — Part A shows the method of eliciting a tracheal tug (*Oliver & sign*). Part B shows the manner in which dilatation of the aortic arch particularly the inferior surface pulsates against the left bronchus. This is particularly likely to occur when there is a sacular aneurysm of the inferior portion of the arch of the aorta.

CYANOSIS

Cyanosis is an important manifestation of cardiac disease. It is due to discoloration of skin caused by the presence of reduced hemoglobin in the cutaneous vessels. When there is cyanosis, at least 5 grains (6 to 7 volumes per cent) of reduced hemoglobin is present per 100 cc of blood. In heart disease it is usually due to the following mechanisms:

(a) **Impairment of Oxygen Exchange in the Lungs** — This is usually brought about by the edema fluid of left ventricular failure which covers the respiratory epithelium with a thin film of fluid interfering with the

4 Ophthalmoscopic Examination—An ophthalmoscopic examination should be done routinely. A great deal of pertinent information about the cardiovascular system can be obtained from this examination. Some of the earliest quantitative data in arteriosclerosis, hypertension, renal disease, and the like can be obtained. The student should begin to study eye-grounds in all of his patients as early as possible in his clinical career. This should be done in a dark room and with the patient's pupils properly dilated (One drop of 2 per cent aqueous solution of homatropine should be placed in each eye every fifteen minutes until 3 drops have been used.) Caution should be employed to avoid producing glaucoma from this drug.

5 Neck—The neck is examined for thyroid enlargement, arterial and venous abnormalities, and tracheal tug (Oliver's sign). In testing for a tracheal tug, the patient's head should be dorsiflexed slightly in order to make the larynx more prominent and to pull the trachea upward. The inferior end of the anterior surface of the larynx is pushed and held in a cephalad position by the tips of the thumb and index fingers in order to stretch it slightly and to pull the left bronchus closer to the inferior surface of the aortic arch (Fig. 47). If there is a tracheal tug, there will be a tugging downward of the larynx with each systolic ejection of the heart. This sign is encountered in aneurysms of the aortic arch.

Kinking of the Carotid Arteries—This occurs frequently in arteriosclerosis or syphilis of the aorta with dilatation and uncoiling of the aorta and displacement upward of the roots of the arteries originating from the arch of the aorta. In arteriosclerosis of the carotid arteries also there is bending and folding of the vessels to a greater extent (Fig. 48). The kinking of these arteries results in turbulence of flow with resultant systolic and diastolic murmurs over the vessels. Systolic and diastolic thrills may be associated with the murmurs. With kinking and bowing anteriorly, they can be seen to pulsate on inspection and can readily be felt on palpation. This usually occurs in the right common carotid artery and is most often observed in senile arteriosclerosis. *These changes are often confused with syphilitic aneurysm.*

6 Thorax—The thorax should be examined carefully for changes related to the heart. Deformities of the chest, such as kyphosis, old fractures, and operative deformities, tugging of the intercostal spaces, barrel-shaped chest of emphysema, and the like, should be noted, as the heart may be displaced greatly with resultant impairment of its function. The veins of the thorax and shoulders are often distended in disease of the heart and its great vessels. Pressure from an aortic aneurysm may obstruct venous return and result in an increase in venous pressure with distention of the superficial vessels of the thorax.

7 Abdomen—The abdomen is examined for ascites, hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, distended veins, a pulsating liver, aneurysm of the abdominal aorta, and other important changes.

8 Extremities—The extremities are examined for vascular disease, pallor, cyanosis, edema, arthritis, nodules, cutaneous lesions, and the like.

transfer of O_2 from the alveolar air into the blood. Tracheal or bronchial obstruction such as is encountered in aneurysms may interfere with the flow of O_2 to the alveolar spaces. Associated diseases of the lungs such as chronic emphysema, bronchiectasis and chronic tuberculosis contribute to that already produced by associated right and left ventricular failure of the heart. In the usual patient hyperpnea associated with the dyspnea results in more than adequate oxygenation of the blood circulating through the lungs.

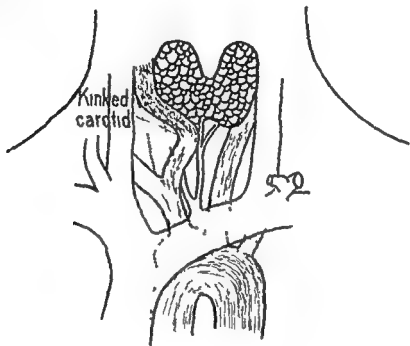


FIG. 18.—Illustration of kinking of common carotid artery produced by dilatation of the aorta at the origin of the innominate artery. This produces the innominate artery cephalad. The common carotid since it is relatively long and free of branches for a great distance kinks. For obvious anatomic reasons it almost always bends medially near the level of the suprasternal notch.

(b) **Stasis in the Peripheral Blood Vessels.** In heart failure stasis of blood occurs in the peripheral blood vessels. The delay and sluggish circulation of the blood allows the tissues to extract more than the usual amount of O_2 from the hemoglobin. The residual reduced hemoglobin is increased in concentration to a level sufficient to produce a variable degree of cyanosis. The same phenomenon may occur with venous stasis from venous obstruction such as occurs with extreme cardiac enlargement or mediastinal aneurysm. *Peripheral circulatory collapse* as occurs with the shock encountered in congestive heart failure or myocardial infarction will also produce stasis in the capillaries, venules and small veins resulting in cyanosis.

tion of the ribs with cardiac systole, and bulging of the precordium. *Thrills* are located by palpation. For this purpose any portion of the palmar surface of the hands and fingers may be used, the hypothermic region often being the most sensitive. Movement of the thoracic wall or limitation of movement may be noted by properly grasping the lower portion of the thorax bilaterally with both hands and noting the differential expansion.

Thrills are often difficult to palpate, especially in obese patients or in patients with large breasts. Considerable practice is required to detect faint thrills. The student should not become discouraged by his initial failures to identify thrills for with perseverance and training, the necessary ability can be attained.

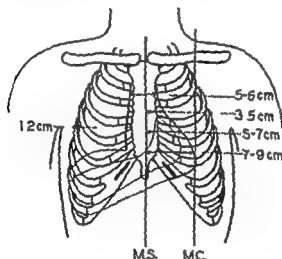


FIG. 61. Location of the borders of the normal heart in relation to the midclavicular line. The distances in centimeters indicated are extreme values.

Thrills that are faint exercise to increase the taken not to confuse produced by vigorous cardiac action. The latter are the thoracic wall.

Thrills are timed similarly to murmurs. They are common diastolic. They are common.

longed chronic right ventricular congestive heart failure. This further disturbs excretion of bilirubin, causing retention and jaundice.

EXAMINATION OF THE HEART

Examination of the heart itself will be discussed somewhat briefly, with elaboration on certain pertinent phases which are often neglected.

Inspection—The heart is inspected to locate the position of the *apex beat*. This is normally in the fifth intercostal space medial to the mid-clavicular line. With enlargement, it is displaced to the left, or to the left and downward. In the obese patient or patient with large breasts, it may be similarly located. Its normal location is shown in figure 50. These points of pulsation are displaced by changes in position, tending to be more medial in location when the subject is standing or sitting than when lying down.

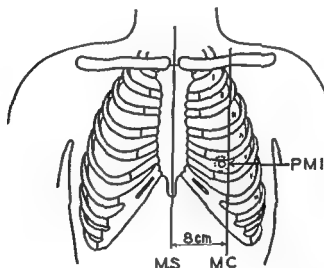


FIG. 50—Location of the point of maximal impulse (PMI) in the normal person.

Retraction of the intercostal spaces in cardiac systole by adhesions (*Broadbent's sign*) may be observed. Disturbances in movement of the diaphragm noted by *Litten's sign* (peeling of the diaphragm from the thoracic wall on inspiration) are of importance in cardiac disease.

The precordial region of the thoracic wall bulges outward in extreme cardiac enlargement. An aneurysm located in the mediastinum may also bulge outwardly and may be seen to pulsate or distend the local regions of the thorax with each systolic ejection of blood.

Palpation—Palpation is employed in part to confirm many of the observations made on inspection, for example, the apex beat, PMI, retrac-

These sounds vary in character and intensity from area to area.

(2) *Time*—The first and second sounds are separated from each other by a relatively short time interval in the average resting cardiac rate. The second sound follows the first by a definitely shorter interval of time than the first follows the second (Fig. 32) at normal and relatively slow rates. When in doubt the first sound can usually be identified from the apex beat or the carotid pulse; they all occur simultaneously. If it is possible to identify the sounds in only one area, the chest pieces of two stethoscopes may be used in such a way that one reaches each ear and, with the known area as a reference, the others may be explored and identified. By noting the temporal relation of the sounds one may identify heart sounds in all areas.



FIG. 32 Photocardiogram and kymograph of the first and second heart sounds showing the relative temporal relationships.

Phases of the Cardiac Cycle—From the clinical point of view, there are only two phases of the cardiac cycle:

- 1 Systole
- 2 Diastole

These two phases are to be identified from the heart sounds (Fig. 33).

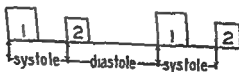


FIG. 33 Diagram of the first and second heart sounds.

Clinically, systole begins with the beginning of the first sound. Any phenomenon occurring between the first and second heart sounds is considered to be occurring during diastole.

Any phenomenon which occurs

Percussion—Percussion of the heart has been discussed previously. There is a tendency among physicians to develop a defeatist attitude about percussion; the advent of roentgenography has been mainly responsible for this attitude. Certainly roentgenographic methods should always be employed whenever possible; there is often no substitute for them. Nevertheless, no physician should fail to develop satisfactory ability to percuss accurately. In many circumstances roentgenographic methods are not available, particularly in acutely ill patients at home, and the attending physician must rely upon percussion to detect cardiac size. An immediate impression is often necessary, and this can be furnished to a satisfactory extent by percussion. Every student should practice and verify by roentgenographic means his ability to percuss accurately, and *should never cease trying until ability has been adequately developed*.

Percussion serves as a check of cardiac size previously determined by inspection and by palpation. Not only should the apex be located but the cardiac border should also be completely outlined (Fig. 31). Careful percussion will reveal distortions in cardiac configuration, such as occur in mitral stenosis with enlargement of the left atrium and pulmonary cone upward and to the left. It is difficult, however, to percuss the outline of the great vessels of the heart. A good rule to remember is that the substernal region above the heart is not really dull to percussion, although it is not as resonant as the pulmonary field. Impairment of this resonance is accentuated (a definite dullness or flatness on percussion) in the presence of a mediastinal mass.

AUSCULTATION OF THE HEART

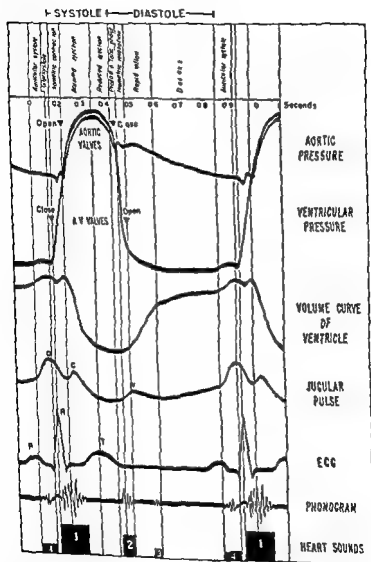
No phase of the cardiac examination is as important and yet is little understood as auscultation. Many students complete their formal training and enter practice without ever achieving the ability to auscultate properly. Many cannot identify or even time murmurs with sufficient confidence to remain in a branch of medicine in which the proper use of the stethoscope is exceedingly important. Auscultation is simple and reliable, but only if the physician learns the fundamental principles concerned with sound, particularly those sounds encountered in the patient. To learn auscultation by rote memory or cook book fashion spells defeat. Practice in normal and abnormal persons is essential, but only after the theoretic principles have been learned.

The discussion of auscultation will be limited entirely to the heart and blood vessels. Auscultation of the lungs is a separate and equally important aspect of physical diagnosis and for that matter of cardiovascular diagnosis.

Heart Sounds. The first problem that confronts the examiner when he listens to the heart is the identity of the heart sounds. This is usually but not always simple. As a rule the separate sounds can be identified in the average patient from their *quality* and the *timing*.

(1) *Quality*—The characteristic *lub dub* of the first and second sounds is heard. The first sound is usually more intense than the second at the apex.

is complete and is normal. The student should train himself to listen only to systole and ignore diastole. If a student is able to hear aortic micro-murmurs, the micro-systole.



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from the onset of the second sound to the time the first sound occurs is *diastolic* in time. Therefore to time anything in relation to the phases of the cardiac cycle, one must identify the heart sounds first. Murmurs, clicks, rubs, and so forth can thus be timed.

It is thus obvious that the phase of the cardiac cycle is determined by the phase of the cycle of the ventricles and not of the atria. Cardiac systole is synonymous with ventricular systole, and the diastolic phase of the heart is synonymous with the ventricular diastole. It is well to remember that there are also systole and diastole of the atria. The atria go into systole during ventricular diastole and into diastole during ventricular systole. Although such physiologic phenomena are well known, the student often forgets them in practice in the clinic and therefore cannot fail to confuse the hemodynamic phenomena and is finally perplexed when considering murmurs.

Third and Fourth Heart Sounds — During the diastolic phase there may be two other sounds, the *third* and *fourth* (Fig 54). The characteristics of these sounds, like those of the first, will be given under the discussion of sound tracings. The *third heart sound* occurs shortly after the second sound or early in diastole and the *fourth heart sound* occurs late in diastole or just before the first sound, i. e., just before systole begins.

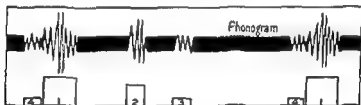


FIG 54 — Phonogram and diagram of the four normal heart sounds showing their relative intensities, pitch and time.

The relationship of these sounds to other events in the cardiac cycle must be kept in mind for their proper evaluation (Fig 55). This will be discussed in detail later.

Auscultation in Practice — Auscultation of the heart must be performed in an organized fashion. It is better to begin at the *mitral area*, first identifying the *first* and *second* heart sounds. Once these have been identified, attention must be directed to the interval of time from the beginning of the first sound to the beginning of the second sound. The only sound usually heard in the normal person during this period is the first sound. This is followed by a period of silence and then systole ends with the beginning of the second sound. Any sound heard during this period is systolic in time. This examination should be made during complete inflation and complete deflation of the lungs with the patient resting on his left side, leaning forward, standing, sitting and lying supine, to be certain that no other sounds or murmurs have been overlooked. If nothing other than the first sound is heard, then the examination of systole for that area

examine all of them with the patient at rest first, after exercise, and in various positions of the body. Obviously, it is necessary to coordinate the latter so that the patient does not exercise separately or change position with examination of each cardiac area separately.

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Based on change in -
Intensity or amplitude frequency or pitch

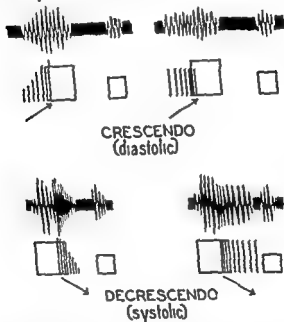


FIG 56 Phonogram and diagram of systolic and diastolic crescendo and decrescendo murmurs. A murmur may be *crescendo* (increasing) in intensity or pitch or it may be *decrescendo* (decreasing) in intensity and in pitch. Various combinations such as *crescendo-decrescendo* or *decrescendo-crescendo* murmurs may occur. The latter two combinations are particularly likely to occur for the diastolic murmur of mitral stenosis.

Sound Tracings —It is not our purpose in presenting this discussion of sound tracings to train the student in the interpretation of these records. They are used primarily to correlate the peripheral pulsations in such a way as the evaluation of a cardiac disorder considered highly specialized or detailed but there is no other way to learn

should direct his attention to the period beginning with the second sound and ending with the beginning of the first sound and, as is true with the systolic evaluation, position and pulmonary expansion are important. This is the diastolic period, which begins with the second sound. If the period from the end of the second sound to the beginning of the first sound is silent, the diastolic evaluation is complete. If any sound is heard during this usually silent period, it is diastolic in time. A sound heard soon after the second sound should be studied to determine if it is a *third* heart sound, if it is heard late, a *fourth* sound should be considered. A murmur heard during this period is diastolic. Once each phase has been carefully examined separately, the two phases are coordinated. With practice, this requires little time.

TABLE 4 — TABLE OF TERMS TO BE USED IN DESCRIBING HEART SOUNDS AND MURMURS
(From Nomenclature and Criteria for Diagnosis of Diseases of the Heart,
New York Heart Association, Inc.)

HEART SOUNDS				
<i>Intensity</i>	<i>Pitch</i>	<i>Quality</i>	<i>Duration</i>	<i>Time</i>
Normal		Normal	Normal	
Faint		Sharp	Short	
Weak		Snapping		
Distant		Valvular		
Muffled				
Loud		Booming	Prolonged	
Accentuated		Muscular		
Increased				
Absent		Split		
Replaced by a murmur		Reduplicated		
		Ringing		
		Metallic		
		Bell-like		
		Tambour		
		Hollow		
MURMURS				
Faint	High	Blowing	Short	Systolic
Soft				
Moderate	Medium	Harsh	Moderate	Early Systolic
		Rough		
		Coarse		
Loud	Low	Musical	Long	Late Systolic
		Rumbling		Diastolic
		Crescendo		Early Diastolic
		Decrescendo		Mid-diastolic
				Presystolic
				(Late diastolic)

All murmurs are studied for their characteristics, *i. e.*, *intensity*, *pitch*, *quality*, *duration*, and *transmission* (Table 4 and Fig. 56).

Once the mitral area has been adequately auscultated, then the *aortic*, *pulmonic* and *tricuspid* valvular areas in turn are examined similarly.

Examine all of them with the patient at rest first, after exercise, and in various positions of the body. Obviously, it is necessary to coördinate the latter so that the patient does not exercise separately or change position for the examination of each cardiac area separately.

It is also to be noted that the first heart sound is often confused with a murmur, therefore, should make a note to avoid any confusion.

with such murmurs

Based on change in—
Intensity or amplitude frequency or pitch

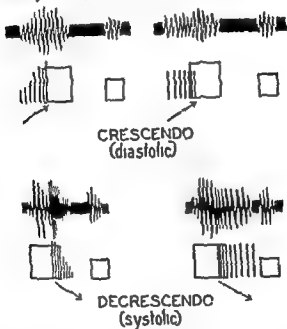


FIG. 58.—Phonogram and diagram of systolic and diastolic crescendo and decrescendo murmurs. A murmur may be *crescendo* (increasing) in intensity or pitch or it may be *decrescendo* (decreasing) in intensity and in pitch. Various combinations such as *crescendo-decrescendo* or *decrescendo-crescendo* murmurs may occur. The latter two combinations are particularly likely to occur for the diastolic murmur of mitral stenosis.

Sound Tracings—It is not our purpose in presenting this discussion of sound tracings. They are peripheral to the examination of the heart, and although specialized or detailed but there is no other way to learn

the subject properly. It is hoped that the student will *think* carefully, thoroughly and clearly as he reads the following discussion on sound tracings. He will be rewarded for his efforts in practical clinical auscultation and, in addition, can easily advance to an intelligent interpretation of sound tracings.

ASPECTS OF PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SOUND

Audible Frequencies — The audible frequencies of sound vary between 16 cycles per second and 20,000 cycles per second. The *intensity*, measured in dynes per square centimeter per second, must be sufficient to be audible at any given frequency. The duration of the sound is also important in audibility. For example, at frequencies of 32 to 2,500 cycles per second *two cycles* are sufficient for perception. Sounds with frequencies below those audible by man are called *infrasonic*, and those above audible levels are known as *ultrasonic* or *supersonic*.

Auditory sensations are classified as

1 **Tone** — A tone is a sound wave which is sinusoidal in nature (Fig. 57) and may be expressed by the formula

$$P = P_0 \sin \omega t$$

where P = value at time t

P_0 = initial pressure in dynes per square centimeter per second

ω
 2π = frequency

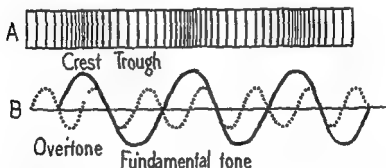


FIG. 57.—Diagram showing how a sound wave is propagated with a trough and crest. The fundamental tone and an overtone are shown in Part B.

2 **Sound** — A sound consists of a *fundamental tone* with a number of superimposed *overtones*. The frequencies of the overtones are multiples of the fundamental tone (Fig. 57). Such a combination has the formula

$$P = P_1 \sin (\omega t + \phi) + P_2 \sin (2\omega t + 2\phi) -$$

When there are various sounds existing simultaneously whose fundamental frequencies are not multiples of each other, a *mixed sound* is said to exist. This may be expressed by

$$P = \sum_1^{\mu} P_n \sin (\eta \omega_1 t + n \phi) + \sum_1^{\pi} P_i \sin (m \omega_2 t + m \phi) -$$

Noise — A noise is a sound consisting of irregular vibrations. From the foregoing brief discussion it is obvious that the terms heart tones and heart sounds are innumerable. The French clinicians are correct in referring to them as bruits, heart noises. Nevertheless to conform with usage the term heart sounds will be employed throughout these discussions in spite of the technical inadequateness of the term.

Characteristics of Heart Sounds — Heart sounds have the following characteristics (Fig. 38):

- 1 *Intensity* = force or amplitude of the vibrations
- 2 *Pitch* = frequency of the vibrations per unit time
- 3 *Duration* = length of time it persists
- 4 *Timbre* = Quality which depends upon overtones or harmonics accompanying the fundamental tone or note. This characteristic is present only if the heart sound should exist as a sound in the true physical sense.

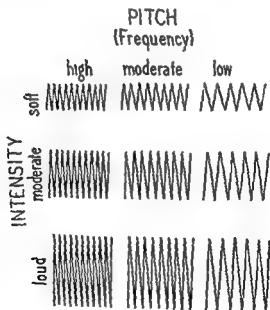


FIG. 38 — Illustration showing how a sound may vary in intensity and pitch. A sound for example may be faint or of low intensity but high in pitch or loud and low in pitch etc. The various combinations and their significance must be known to appreciate the importance of heart sound in heart diagnosis.

Origin of Heart Sounds — Heart sounds originate from

1 **Heart Muscle** — When a muscle contracts, sound waves are initiated by the contracting fibers (Fig. 59). This is true of cardiac muscle as well as skeletal muscle.

2 **Heart Valves** — When the heart valves *open* as blood flows through them or when they *close* and especially with sudden snapping of the chorda tendineae, sound waves are set into motion (Fig. 59).

3 **Flowing Blood** — Blood which is *flowing rapidly* through chambers of irregular size, such as the heart chambers and great vessels, produces *turbulence* of flow with resultant initiation of sound vibrations.

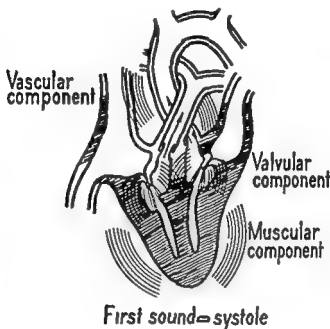


FIG. 59. The origin of the vibrations which produce the first heart sound (S₁ or S₁).

4 **Vascular Walls** — Sudden variations in intra-arterial tension set the vascular walls into vibration, resulting in production of sound (Fig. 59). Turbulent flow will also cause the vascular walls to vibrate.

The transmission of heart sounds varies with the characteristics of the surrounding tissue, especially its *natural frequency*. If this is of the same order as the frequency of the heart sounds, it will be intensified by *resonance*. If the *natural frequency* differs greatly from that of the heart sound, it will be weakened by *interference*.

It is obvious that the *intensity* of the heart sounds depends upon (1) the position of the heart, (2) the nature of the surrounding structures, and (3) the position of the stethoscope in relation to the source of the sound.

The heart sounds reaching the ear or recorder differ from the original and therefore represent "modified sounds."

Extraneous Sounds — During auscultation or the mechanical recording of sound many extraneous or extracardiac sounds may be encountered such as friction rubs friction between chest piece and hair or skin rales skeletal muscle sounds etc. The student must train himself to recognize these sounds and to ignore them as well as the many other existing in an examination room.

RECORDING OF SOUND

With the advent of more satisfactory and practical methods the mechanical recording of sound has become more and more important within recent years. The chief value of such recordings although still not fully satisfactory clinically is concerned with the learning and understanding of normal and abnormal heart sounds. The actual identification of various types of murmurs can be attained only at the bedside and on normal people.

The Recording Devices — Many types of recording devices are available some are *direct* or mechanical with the sound wave being transmitted to a vibrating membrane where it is others are *indirect*. The latter usually consist of suitable microphones with vacuum tube *amplification* and electrical recording. The latter must have times the frequency to be recorded may reach frequencies they are usually between

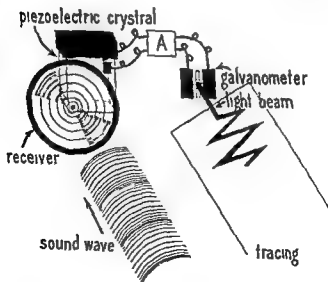


FIG. 60
A recording of
current when
photographed

20 and 150 cycles per second. These recorders must have a minimum of inertia. The essential requirements of mechanical sound recorders are

1. High sensitivity with low threshold of intensity and frequency
2. Deflections that are *proportional* to the acting forces
3. Low inertia
4. Adequate damping
5. A natural frequency at least five times that of the most rapid frequency to be recorded

The frequency threshold varies from 20 to 40 cycles per second depending on the type of recorder.

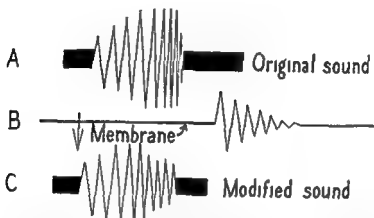


FIG. 4. Any matter or object when suddenly set into vibration will vibrate with a frequency determined by the conditions existing at the time. Regardless of how hard or lightly the object is struck, it always vibrates with the same frequency (*natural frequency*) provided the same conditions are maintained. If solid in object or matter is to transmit sound without distortion, it must have a natural frequency which is at least five, and preferably six, times the highest frequency of vibration to be transmitted. Part A shows an original sound with an increasing pitch. The pitch reaches a level greater than that of the natural frequency of a membrane. B, intended to record properly the original sound. Part C shows that the final record is tracing with the high pitched portion of original sound improperly recorded as to frequency or pitch and intensity. Such distortions occur when inferior recording devices are employed. Furthermore, the traces of the chest cavity distort the original sound produced at the site of formation so that the sound that finally reaches the surface of the thoracic wall is considerably different from the original sound.

THE PHLEBOGRAM

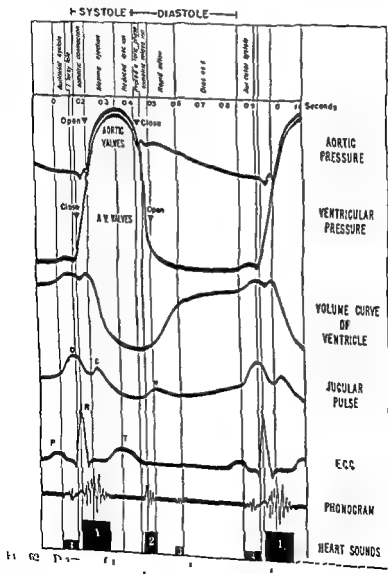
The phlebogram is still an important record in cardiology. It serves a definite purpose in the understanding of hemodynamics and cardiodynamics and certainly the origin of heart sounds. The relation of the phlebogram to the physiologic phases of the cardiac cycle is shown in figure 62. This should be thoroughly mastered by the student.

The positive *a* wave is due to systole of the right atrium which causes some blood to regurgitate into the jugular vein. The positive *c* wave is produced by right ventricular contraction which causes the tricuspid valve

to bulge into the right atrium and in turn displaces blood into the jugular vein. The positive r wave is produced by filling of the right atrium which is closed below with overfilling into the jugular vein.

PHYSIOLOGIC PHASES OF THE CARDIAC CYCLE

The physiologic phases of the cardiac cycle should be known in order better to understand heart sounds and their relation to cardiodynamics.



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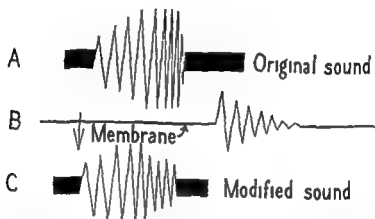


FIG. 61. Any matter or object when suddenly set into vibration will vibrate with a frequency determined by the conditions existing at the time. Regardless of how hard or lightly the object is struck, it always vibrates with the same frequency (*natural frequency*) provided the same conditions are maintained. If such an object or matter is to transmit sound without distortion, it must have a natural frequency which is at least five, and preferably six, times the highest frequency of vibration to be transmitted. Part A shows an original sound with an increasing pitch. The pitch reaches a level greater than that of the natural frequency of a membrane B intended to record properly the original sound. Part C shows that the final record is tracing with the high pitched portion of original sound improperly recorded as to frequency or pitch and intensity. Such distortions occur when inferior recording devices are employed. Furthermore, the tissues of the chest constantly distort the original sound produced at the site of formation so that the sound that finally reaches the surface of the thoracic wall is considerably different from the original sound.

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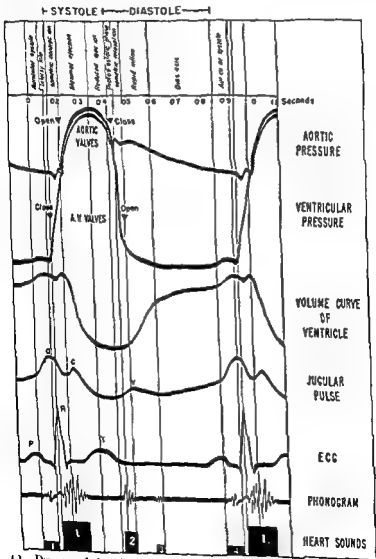


Fig. 12. Diagram of the relation of the components of the phonogram to the heart sounds. This should be learned and understood.

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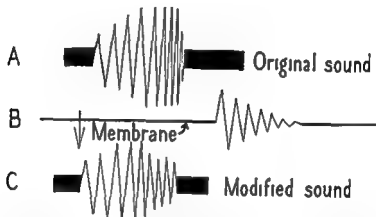


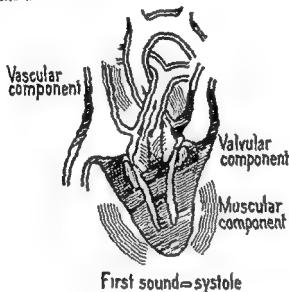
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The positive a wave is due to systole of the right atrium which causes some blood to regurgitate into the jugular vein. The positive c wave is produced by right ventricular contraction which causes the tricuspid valve

- 2 Variations of the sounds from cycle to cycle
 - 3 Characteristics of each sound as to
 - (a) Duration
 - (b) Amplitude of vibrations
 - (c) Frequency of vibration
 - (d) Variations with respiration
 - (e) General characteristics
 - 4 Variations with areas explored
 - 1 Principal temporal relations to events in the reference tracings (electrocardiogram and phlebogram)
- Ordinary clinical auscultation does not permit such a complete analysis. The deficiencies are obvious.



First sound=systole

Fig. 63 Diagram illustrating the three factors of the first heart sound

NORMAL HEART SOUNDS

First Heart Sound The first sound is produced by the following phenomena listed in descending order of importance:

- 1 Muscular contraction and sudden tension of the ventricular wall (muscular factor) (Fig. 63) with shortening produce sound just as does contraction of skeletal muscle. This can be verified by listening with a stethoscope over the biceps muscle as it contracts. The friction between the contracting fibers may be responsible for some of the muscle sounds.
- 2 Sudden closure of the atrioventricular valves (valvular factor) results in sound (Fig. 63). This is said to be due to valves and chorda tendineae snapping shut.

Textbooks of physiology should be consulted for further details. These phases are (Fig. 62)

- 1 *Presystole* or *auricular systole* begins with the contraction of the atria. This normally lasts 0.10 second.
- 2 *Intersystole* begins with the end of the contraction of the atria and ends with the beginning of ventricular contraction. It lasts about 0.04 second.
- 3 *Ventricular systole* has two distinct phases:
 - (a) *The phase of isometric contraction* or the period when the muscle is gathering force and increasing its tone but before the fibers have shortened and
 - (b) *The phase of ejection* with three subdivisions which are self explanatory:
 - (1) Minimal
 - (2) Maximal
 - (3) Reduced
- 4 *Ventricular diastole* has four phases:
 - (a) *The protodiastolic phase* lasts about 0.04 second and exists between the moment of the beginning of ventricular relaxation and the closure of the semilunar valves.
 - (b) *The isometric relaxation phase* or the moment during which the ventricular muscle fibers are relaxing in force but not in length. Blood is not entering or leaving the ventricles and the semilunar valves are closed.
 - (c) *The rapid filling phase* lasts 0.11 second. At this moment the atrioventricular valves are open and blood is entering the ventricles from the atria.
 - (d) *The slow filling or diastolic phase* represents the period between rapid filling and the beginning of the next auricular contraction.

The student should not only become acquainted with these phases but should know *direction, rate and force of the blood moving in the heart* at these various times. He should also know the state of the valves and cardiac muscle during each phase and during the transition from each phase. Such knowledge is essential for an understanding of heart sounds and murmurs. Sound tracings are usually recorded with the phlebogram and electrocardiogram as references to make possible necessary correlations with other cardiac events. The mere *correlations* require thought and knowledge of cardiac physiology. The study of sound tracings does not actually differ a great deal from the ordinary study of heart sounds and murmurs with the stethoscope. Since both are necessary and valuable they will be presented in discussions to follow.

ANALYSIS OF THE PHONOCARDIOGRAM

The sound record is analyzed for

- 1 Number of sounds per cardiac cycle

occurs just after inter-systole and precedes the onset of the *c* wave of the phlebogram (Fig. 62).

The second component (Fig. 63) is separated from the first by a short interval. It is identified by its higher frequency and greater amplitude. It begins with or shortly after the peak of the usual *R* wave and ends before the onset of the *c* wave, which represents the beginning of the ejection phase. It is probably due to the closure of the *AV* valves (Fig. 62). It has about 14 vibrations.

The third component (Fig. 65) is almost always clearly separated from the second component. It begins with the beginning of the *c* wave of the jugular pulse tracing (the ejection phase). It is associated with the opening of the semilunar valves and the maximal ejection phase. It usually has two vibrations of high frequency and high amplitude.

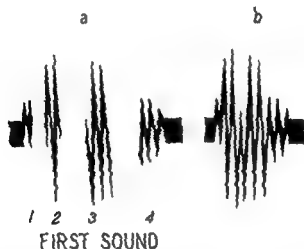


FIG. 64. Partishow, the four components of the first heart sound separated. *a*) (1) is part below them together as they actually occur. The first component occurs during the period of isovolumetric contraction, the second during the period of closure of the *AV* valves and beginning of the ejection phase, the third during the period of maximal ejection, and the fourth during the maximal ejection phase or period of acceleration of blood flow. (Consult text for details.)

The fourth component (Fig. 65) follows the third component without an intervening interval. It is low in frequency and low in amplitude and may be represented as a buzzed line. It occurs simultaneously with the peak of the *c* wave of the jugular pulse and the anacrotic notch of the arterial pulse (Fig. 62). It seems to be related to the sudden acceleration of the blood flow in the main arterial vessels during the maximal ejection phase.

The first sound has an average frequency of 30 vibrations per second although observers have found it to vary from 25 to 55. Its duration varies from 0.10 to 0.17 second.

- 3 Movement of the blood and sudden distention of the arteries at the base of the heart (*vascular factor*) result in turbulence of flow and vibration of the vascular walls with production of sound (Fig. 63)
- 4 Residual vibration from auricular contraction (*auricular factor*) often contributes to the first sound whenever the auricular contraction or fourth heart sound occurs late in the cardiac cycle (Fig. 64)
- 5 Some observers contend, although it has not been proved, that Korotkow sounds are produced in the semi-occluded coronary vessels which are being squeezed by the tightening ventricular muscle

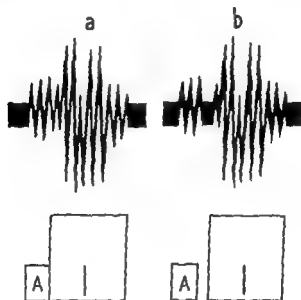


FIG. 64 — Part *a* shows the auricular or fourth heart sound merging with the first heart sound. This often results in an error of interpretation by the clinician. The

The graphic appearance of the first sound (Fig. 64) is not a configuration that the observer would have predicted by his experience with auscultation. This is due in a large part to the traditional practice of representing the sound by a solid rectangular column (Fig. 64). Phonocardiography has aptly filled this gap and taught us a great deal. The first sound actually consists of four components.

The first component (Figs. 64 and 65) consists of a single small, relatively low frequency, thick or slurred vibration (at times there are two) which immediately follows the auricular sound when the latter is present. It begins in all areas about 0.011 to 0.039 second after the QRS complex has begun and about 0.008 second before the peak of the usual type of R wave. This component occurs as a result of the *isometric contraction* and therefore

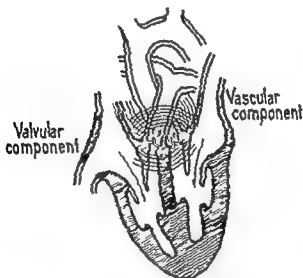
2 The first sound precedes the apex beat by 0.01 second when it is recorded at the apex of the heart and by 0.05 second when recorded at the base of the heart in the second intercostal space

3 All vibrations preceding the QRS complex are nonventricular in origin

4 The arterial pulse waves and heart sounds show poor correlation

5 The first sound obviously precedes the rise in the fontanellic pulse

Second Heart Sound — The second sound (Fig. 66) is shorter and higher pitched than the first sound which is relatively prolonged and low pitched



Second sound = diastole

Fig. 66 The origin of vibrations responsible for the second heart sound

Characteristic characteristics of the second sound — The principal and high amplitude vibrations are preceded by a low oscillation which appears before the incisura or diastolic notch of the carotid arterial pulse and occurs within the first diastolic phase of the cardiac cycle (Fig. 66). There is usually one component which has four to five vibrations with a frequency of 34 to 41 per second. It is produced mainly by closure of the semilunar valves and vibrations of them and the root of the aorta and pulmonary artery.

Relation of the Second Sound to Other Cardiac Phenomena 1 The second sound corresponds with the first auscultatory or clinical evidence of a decrease in intraventricular pressure. It occurs with closure of the semilunar valves (Fig. 67).

2 It usually begins 0.01 to 0.02 second after the end of the T wave of the electrocardiogram. It may precede the T wave by 0.05 second because of the great tendency of the T wave to vary in shape and duration within the cardiac cycle (Fig. 68).

Relation of the First Sound to Other Cardiac Events — 1 The beginning of the first sound and the increase in intraventricular pressure coincide closely (Fig 66). If it precedes the beginning of the isometric contraction phase, this is explained by the presence of the auricular component or residual of the fourth heart sound.

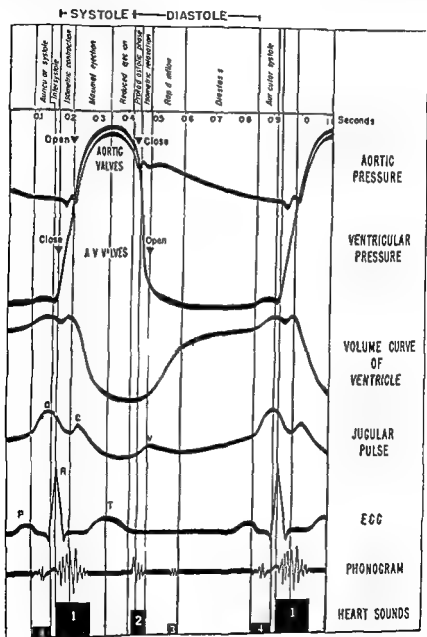


FIG. 66 — Diagram of the relationships of the second heart sound to the other sound and cardiac phenomena. The student must understand these physiological facts to understand properly cardiac function.

The Fourth or Auricular Sound—The graphic records (Fig. 69) show that the auricular sound is frequently present in the normal heart but this sound is not always heard on auscultation. It is easily missed because the auricular (fourth heart) sound is of (1) low intensity (2) short duration and (3) low frequency.

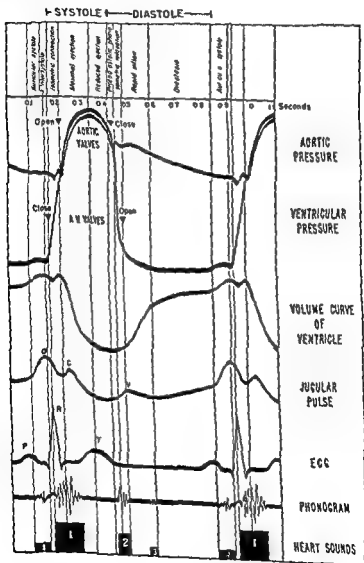


FIG. 68. The third heart sound and its relationship to other cardiac hemodynamic phenomena.

3 It begins with the lowest part of the *diastolic notch* of the *carotid pulse*

4 The beginning of the second sound *precedes* the summit of the *c wave* by a *constant* interval of about 0.11 second

5 The second sound is *split* in about 90 per cent of normal people due to asynchronous closure of the aortic and pulmonic valves. The *first* component is aortic valvular in origin and the second component is of pulmonic valvular origin

Third Heart Sound — *The third heart sound* is probably produced by the rush of blood into the ventricles from the atria producing vibrations in the walls of the ventricles. It is frequently confused with a reduplication of the second sound. This sound is present in about 55 per cent of individuals from ten to twenty years of age. It decreases with age and is not often heard in young children.

Graphic characteristics of the third sound (Fig. 68). The third heart sound occurs late in the period of rapid ventricular filling. It is seen just before the final portions of the descending limb of the *c wave* of the *jugular pulse tracing*. The interval between the second and third sounds represents the period of time between closure of the semilunar valves and the final stages of rapid ventricular filling. This time is fairly constant, ranging from 0.11 to 0.14 second. The amplitude of the third sound is usually, but not always, less than that of the second sound. Its duration averages 0.08 second (range 0.07 to 0.10). The frequency varies between 2½ to 3½ vibrations per second. The number of vibrations varies from three to five.

Relation of the Third Sound to Other Cardiac Functions 1 The third sound occurs after closure of the semilunar valves.

2 It occurs near the end of the *c wave* of the venogram.

The character of the third sound depends upon several factors, most of which are particularly active during congestive heart failure with a dilated flabby heart and venous and atrial hypertension. The character of the third heart sound depends upon

1 Suddenness of ventricular filling

2 Condition of the ventricular musculature and its ability to respond to the inflow of blood, and

3 Degree of contact of the heart with the thoracic wall

The suddenness of ventricular filling depends upon the difference in pressure in the atria and ventricles and the emptiness of the ventricles. It is obvious therefore why abdominal pressure elevation of the legs increase in heart rate and so on facilitate perception of the third heart sound. It is also easy to see why abnormal physiologic conditions such as congestive heart failure result in a loud third heart sound and *protodiastolic gallop rhythm*—a common observation in congestive heart failure. In congestive heart failure the venous pressure is high, therefore the blood rushes into the ventricles which are flabby causing their walls to vibrate easily. The dilated ventricles are close to the thoracic wall and the sounds produced are thus readily transmitted to the stethoscope.

- 4 Distention and vibration of the ventricular walls by the blood entering from the atria
 - 5 Friction of the atria against the surrounding tissues
- Graphic characteristics of the fourth heart sound

- 1 The vibrations begin with the onset of auricular contraction starting 0.04 to 0.06 second after the peak of the P wave. This

- 2
 - 3
- tention of the
P wave

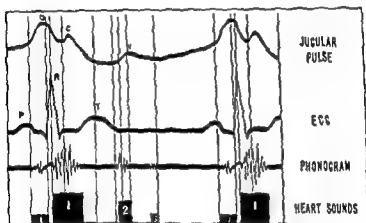


FIG. 70. The fourth heart sound and its relationship to the venogram and electrocardiogram.

The fourth heart sound is found on graphic records of about 45 per cent of normal medical students, 36 per cent of infants, 69 per cent of school

into this sound. The fourth heart sound has a frequency of about 29 cycles per second. It thus has the lowest pitch of all the normal heart sounds. It is best recorded in the meso-axial area but is loudest when recorded

it begins 0.018 to 0.04 second (mean 0.013 ± 0.004) after the summit of the P wave in lead II. In infants it begins 0.06 second after the peak of P

temporal relations since the P wave is so variable from person to person and from time to time.

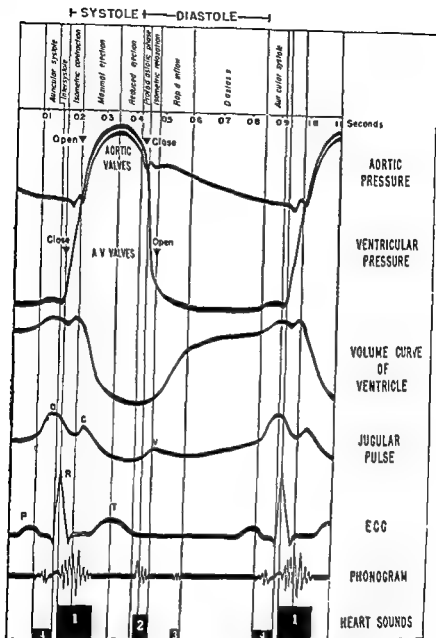


FIG. 19.—The fourth heart sound and its relationships to other cardiac hemodynamic phenomena.

The auricular sound is produced by

- 1 Auricular contraction and shortening of the muscle fibers
- 2 Tensing and vibration of the auricular wall
- 3 Flow of blood through the atrioventricular orifices with the associated turbulence

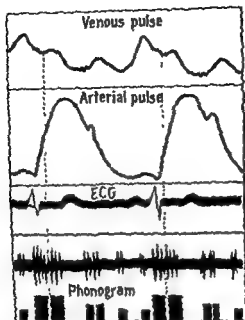


FIG. 73—Splitting of the first heart sound due to wide separation of the second and third components of the sound. The relation to other cardiac phenomena is shown (consult text for details).

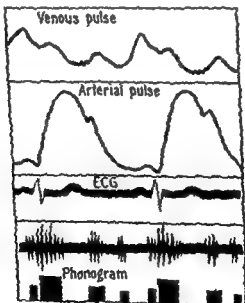


FIG. 74—Splitting of the first sound due to a loud fourth or auricular sound. Note the relationships to other cardiac phenomena.

SPECIAL TYPES OF VARIATIONS IN THE HEART SOUNDS

Certain types of variations in heart sounds which are of practical significance in clinical medicine will be discussed. This is not intended to be complete and does not include many of the rare varieties that may be encountered. Such abnormalities are problems for more advanced study.



FIG 71 — Physiologic splitting of the first heart sound due to accentuation of the second and third components. This apparently is the only type of splitting that occurs in the normal state.

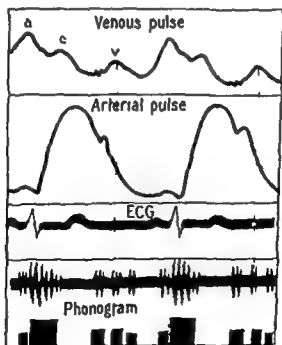


FIG 72 — Splitting of the second heart sound due to the opening snap of the mitral valve during early filling of the ventricle in diastole. The relationship of the various heart sounds to other hemodynamic and electrocardiographic phenomena is shown.

asynchronous closure of valves. Many are instead due to separation of the two main components of the first sound (Figs 71 and 72) in the normal person.

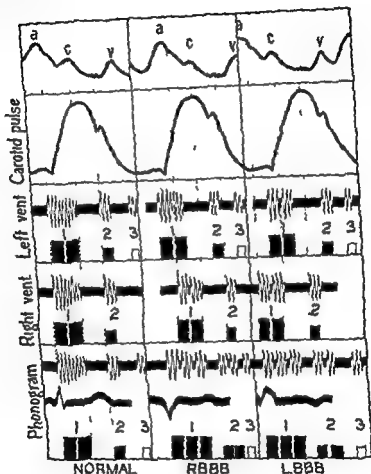


FIG. 6. The
Clock Remon
with 1/10 sec

At times an accentuated aortic or fourth heart sound is erroneously considered as splitting of the first sound (Fig. 74). Another excellent example of splitting is found in bundle branch block. In bundle branch block one ventricle contracts earlier than the other. As a result of this there is an asynchronous production of the components of the heart sound. The changes brought about are shown in figure 75. This figure requires

Splitting of Heart Sounds—It was not until the advent of phonocardiographic methods that the problem of splitting of heart sounds was understood. Many concepts based on clinical auscultation alone were later found to be erroneous. For example, the normal physiologic splitting of the first sound due to a loud auricular (fourth) sound and the pathologic

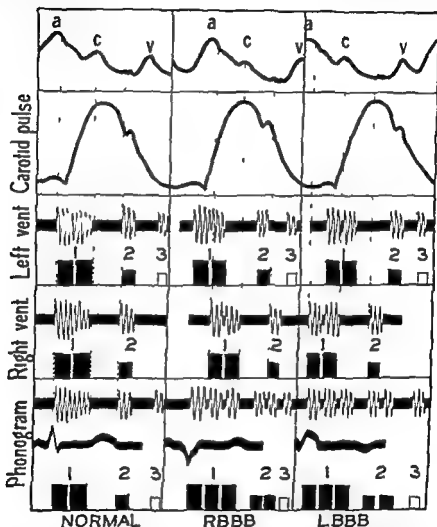


FIG. 74.—Splitting of the first and second heart sounds in right and left bundle branch block. Comparison is made with the heart sound in the normal. This figure should be carefully studied and the hemodynamic disturbances should be properly evaluated and learned. Remember that the right side of the heart is responsible for the venogram and the left ventricle for the carotid pulse and most of the heart sound.

splitting of the second sound due to the opening snap of mitral stenosis (Fig. 72) are more clearly understood today with the use of graphic methods.

Splitting of the First Sound—Since the development of cardiophonography, it has been found that many instances of splitting are not due to

asynchronous closure of the two main component influences (Figs 71 and 72) in the normal person.

Similar splitting occurs in various disease states.

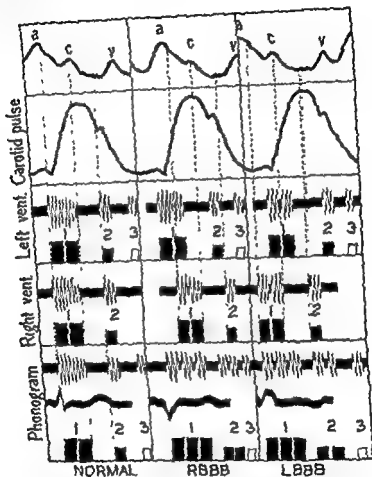


FIG. 76. The displacement of the third heart sound in right and left bundle branch block. Remember the right side of the heart is responsible for the jugulars and the left ventricle for the carotid pulse and most of the heart sounds.

At times an accentuated auricular or fourth heart sound is erroneously considered as splitting of the first sound (Fig. 74). Another excellent example of splitting is found in bundle branch block. In bundle branch block one ventricle contracts earlier than the other. As a result of this there is an asynchronous production of the components of the heart sounds. The changes brought about are shown in figure 77. This figure requires

careful study to separate the hemodynamic entities that produce the components of the heart sounds in the asynchronous cardiac activities. It can be seen how the two main components of the first sound and the second sound produced by each ventricle separately occur synchronously in the normal heart and asynchronously in the presence of bundle branch block.

Splitting of the Second Sound — Many examples of splitting of the second sound identified by clinical auscultation have since proved to be due to the close grouping of the second and third heart sounds and therefore are not true splitting. True splitting is the result of asynchronous closure of the aortic and pulmonic valves. This is usually found in the presence of bundle branch block (Fig. 75) and premature beats.

Bundle Branch Block — Bundle branch block is the best etiologic example of splitting of heart sounds. The mechanism is simple to understand once the heart sounds and their mechanisms are learned. In bundle branch block the ventricle supplied by the intact bundle contracts first. It therefore produces its components of the heart sounds first. If this ventricle contracts first by 0.04 to 0.06 second, *three well developed components of the first sound and two of the second are grouped together.* The first and second components and their grouping are shown in figure 75. All of these figures and their legends should be carefully studied and the splitting should be correlated with the physiologic activity within the heart.

In bundle branch block the *third heart sound* is displaced in relation to the r wave of the venous pulse (Fig. 76). In *left bundle branch block* the sound appears later than the end of the descending limb of the r wave which represents the rapid filling phase of the right ventricle. This relationship exists because the right ventricle contracts first. Remember that the left ventricle is mainly responsible for the heart sounds and the right ventricle for the venous pulse. In *right bundle branch block* (left ventricle contracting first) the third heart sound coincides more or less with the summit of the r wave.

RELATION OF HEART SOUNDS TO TYPE OF PATIENT

There are certain variations in the heart sound which occur with variations in age of the patient and with pregnancy.

1 **Age** — Fetal heart sounds have been recorded but not to any practical extent.

In *infants* the second sound is not as clear as it is in adults. The second sound in the pulmonic area is louder than that in the aortic area. This is the result of the continued influence of the fetal type of circulation with the relatively high pulmonary blood pressure. As the person grows older, aortic pressure becomes higher and the pulmonary blood pressure relatively lower. This results in an increase in the aortic second sound over the pulmonic second sound. The *third heart sound* occurs in about 38 per cent of infants. The *fourth heart sound* is also heard at times.

The first sound has 3 to 5 vibrations which rise quickly to a maximal amplitude. It lasts about 0.064 to 0.172 second (usually between 0.10 and 0.14 second). It has a frequency of 30-50 cycles per second.

The second sound has 2 to 6 vibrations and reaches a maximal amplitude gradually. Its duration varies between 0.045 and 0.164 second (usually between 0.075 and 0.100). It has a frequency of 31 to 64 cycles per second, the pitch being similar to that of the first heart sound.

Children have heart sounds similar to those of adults. The third sound is present in 83 per cent of children.

There has been no systematic study of heart sounds in senility. However, the intensity is found to be reduced.

2 **Sex**—There are no apparent sexual differences, although there have been relatively few studies in women.

3 **Pregnancy**—The first, second, and third heart sounds are present in about 22 per cent of pregnant women, and all four heart sounds are heard in 6 per cent.

HEART SOUNDS IN DISEASE

of influence
the changes

Gallop Rhythm

Gallop rhythm (triple rhythm) is a clinical auscultatory phenomenon in which the sounds are so grouped and of such intensity as to produce the effects of a horse galloping in the distance. The rate of the gallop varies with the cardiac rate. It usually represents serious myocardial disease.

The extra sound is called the gallop sound. This appears under three circumstances:

1 It may coincide with auricular systole, appearing before the a wave of the jugular pulse, thus being an exaggerated auricular or fourth heart sound.

2 It may coincide with ventricular systole, appearing after the a wave of the jugular pulse, thus being an exaggerated ventricular or fifth heart sound.

3 The third and fourth heart sounds may coincide, thus being an exaggerated third or fourth heart sound.

of re

1 **Nomenclature of Gallop Rhythm in Terms of the Time of the Gallop**

1. A gallop rhythm with a vascular component, the nature of which is vague and indefinite.

(b) *Protodiastolic gallop rhythm* is present when the gallop sound occurs early in the diastolic phase of the cardiac cycle. It is due to an exaggerated third heart sound and is common in congestive heart failure (Fig 78). For further discussion refer to the sections on the third heart sound and the signs of left ventricular failure.

SYSTOLIC GALLOP

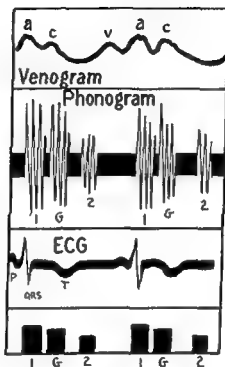


FIG 7 Systolic gallop rhythm showing the relationship of gallop sound to other cardiac phenomena. The mechanism of production of the gallop sound is unknown.

(c) *Mesodiastolic gallop rhythm* is present when the gallop sound occurs in the middle of the diastolic phase of the cardiac cycle. It is found in fairly rapid cardiac rates and is due either to the *auricular* or *fourth heart sound* or to the *third heart sound* occurring in this phase of the cycle or to both (Fig 79).

(d) *Presystolic gallop rhythm* exists when the gallop sound occurs late in diastole or immediately preceding systole. It is due to an exaggerated *auricular* or *fourth heart sound* at normal or relatively slow rates (Fig 80).

2 Nomenclature of Gallop Rhythm in Terms of the Mechanism Responsible for the Gallop Sound — (Table 5)

(a) *Presystolic or auricular gallop* constitutes about 27 per cent of all gallop rhythms.

(b) *Rapid filling gallop* (protodiastolic) constitutes about 14 per cent of all gallop rhythms.

(c) *Summation* complete or incomplete gallop (mesodiastolic) constitutes about 59 per cent of all gallop rhythms. This type of gallop is usually included by most physicians with protodiastolic gallop.

The term *protodiastolic gallop* rhythm should be reserved for use only in those patients with heart disease. The extra sound may be heard in normal people with a thin thoracic wall and a loud third heart sound.

PROTODIASTOLIC OR VENT. FILLING GALLOP

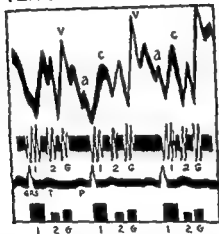


FIG. 78.—Protodiastolic gallop rhythm. The gallop sound G is really an accentuated third heart sound. Protodiastolic gallop rhythm is likely to occur in left ventricular congestive heart failure because the third heart sound is prone to be accentuated when the left ventricle fails. This is true because (1) the left ventricle is usually dilated and therefore close to the anterior thoracic wall thereby transmitting the usually faint third

or as in toxic or degenerative states of the myocardium, such as are encountered in acute infections, severe anemias or any type of organic heart disease associated with congestive heart failure.

HEART SOUNDS AND MURMURS IN VALVULAR DISEASE

It is now left to the student

to become acquainted with the other murmurs by a study of the medical literature and he will be able to understand the mechanism of any murmur once he has thoroughly learned the fundamental mechanisms of their production.

MESODIASTOLIC OR SUMMATION GALLOP

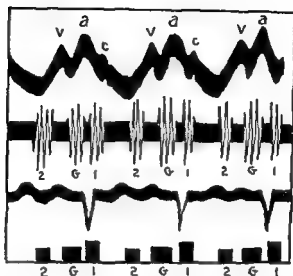


FIG 79—Illustration of mesodiastolic gallop rhythm in which the gallop sound *G* is produced by a summation of the third and fourth heart sounds. The addition of the two sounds results in a sound sufficiently intense to be definitely audible and still remain properly grouped to produce the rhythm of a galloping horse.

PRESYSTOLIC OR AURICULAR GALLOP

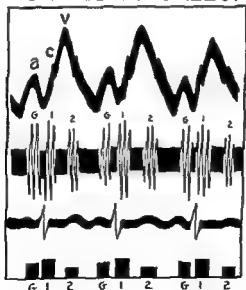
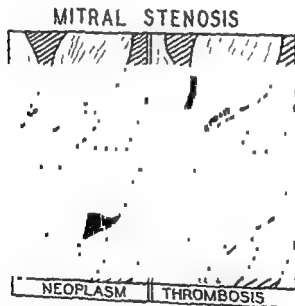


FIG 80—Illustration of late diastolic or presystolic gallop rhythm in which the gallop sound *G* is produced by an accentuated auricular or fourth heart sound.

TABLE 5.—BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE CLASSIFICATION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF CATHETER "TRIAL" RHYTHM

<i>Physiologic element or abnormality</i>	<i>Time or Phase</i>	<i>Heart Sound Responsible</i>	<i>Mechanism of Abnormal Sound</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Incidence Per cent</i>
presystolic murmur	Presystolic	1st sound	Atrial systole	Late diastolic	27
early ventricular fibrillation	Protodiastolic	1st sound	Rapid inflow of ventricle	Early diastolic	11
arrhythmia (complete or incomplete)	Mesodiastolic	3rd and 4th sounds	Both of above	Middle diastolic	51

FIG. 81
may be pro-
jected from

The Mitral Valve

Mitral Stenosis — The left atrioventricular orifice can be narrowed by inflammation and fibrosis (rheumatic fever, arteriosclerosis) of the mitral valve, thrombotic formation in the left atrium, or neoplastic growth in the region of the AV opening (Fig. 81). With extreme dilatation of the left

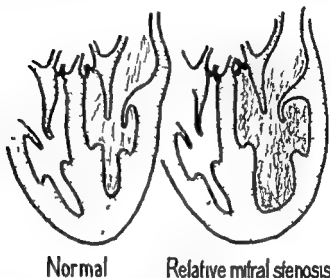


FIG. 82 — Illustration showing the production of a relative mitral stenosis with turbulence of flow resulting in a low pitched diastolic rumbling mitral murmur. In the dilated heart blood enters through a relatively narrow (actually normal or slightly larger) AV opening into a larger chamber the ventricle. This results in turbulence

ventricle and little change in the circumference of the left AV orifice a relative stenosis can develop (Fig. 82). Because of the actual or relative narrowing of the left AV orifice blood enters the left ventricle from the left atrium with difficulty and with a consequent turbulence of flow and murmur formation.

Turbulence of Flow — The mechanism by which turbulence of flow and sound production occur is shown in figures 83 and 84. The physical nature of the disturbances should be understood by the student before he undertakes the study of murmurs in valvular disease. As fluid flows through a tube the friction along the wall of the tube between the flowing fluid and the wall tends to retard the rate of flow of the fluid near the wall. The further the flowing fluid is from the wall of the tube the less friction and the more rapid the rate of flow. Therefore fluid tends to flow more rapidly in the center of the tube and less rapidly near the wall being least rapid immediately along the internal surface of the tube. The smoother the surface of the tube the less the disturbance in flow. The more rapid the rate of flow the greater the disturbance (Fig. 84). It is obvious therefore that any irregularity of the inner surface of the vessel or wide variation in size of the lumen results in turbulence of flow with eddy currents and

the more rapid the flow the greater the turbulence.

the atrium to left ventricle (fig. 5a). The opening is small. With stenosis and blood flow is not rapid enough to result in turbulence.

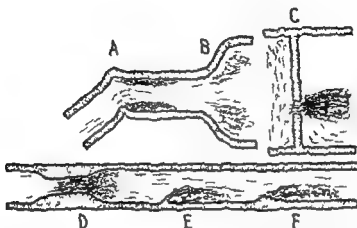
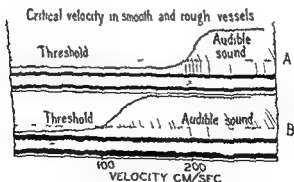


FIG. 81. Diagram illustrating the manner in which turbulence results in blood flowing (1) through sudden regulation of a blood vessel (B) at sudden dilatation of a vessel (C) through a small defect or opening (D) through narrowing of a vessel lumen (E) again (F) around a protrusion or valvular plaque (G) over a rough or irregular endothelial surface. These factors result in murmur formation in the arterial and venous systems of man.



For
B
to
ch

narrowing of the mitral valve, turbulence of flow with murmur formation is to be expected (Fig. 85). It is this turbulence of flow which is responsible for the sound vibrations. As mentioned previously, everything else being equal, (1) the narrower the opening and (2) the more rapid the flow of blood the greater is the tendency for turbulence to develop. Therefore it is not surprising that the murmur of mitral stenosis should be late in diastole for it is at this time that the atria contract most vigorously or give their

MITRAL STENOSIS

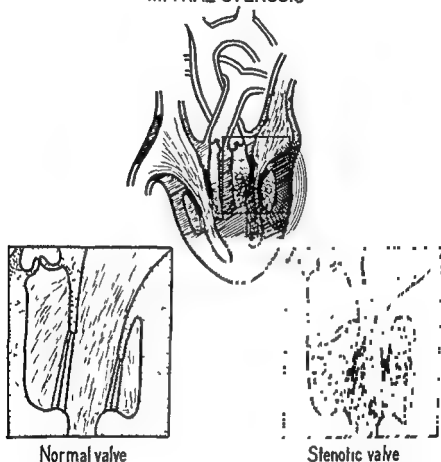
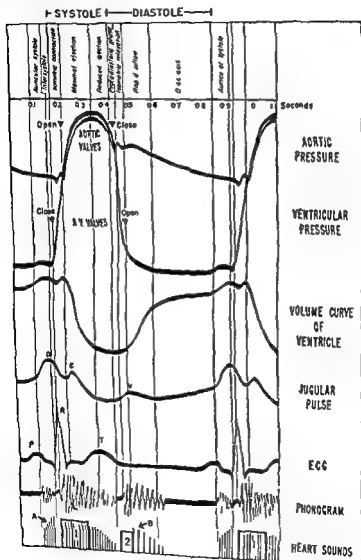


FIG. 85.—Diagram showing the manner in which stenosis of the mitral valve results in turbulence of flow and murmur formation. The normal valve without narrowing and without turbulence is shown for comparison.

last squeeze and eject the last of the blood entering the ventricle. The blood is flowing most rapidly and with greatest force at this moment

and thereby fostering still more turbulence of flow. These factors lead to a late diastolic or presystolic (not systolic) murmur (Fig. 86).

This murmur is *crescendo* (Fig. 57) in nature because the left atrium contracts progressively and more vigorously the blood flow accelerates and the mitral opening progressively narrows. These two factors favor increasing turbulence as the later phase of diastole is reached.



Murmur.—The murmur is *low in pitch, rumbling in quality and faint in intensity* because the pressure gradient between the left atrium and left ventricle is relatively small. In other words, the force with which the left atrium ejects blood into the ventricle is relatively small, and turbulence is not apt to be as great as with some of the other types of murmurs (aortic stenosis, mitral insufficiency) in which the forces responsible for the flow of

Based on change in:—

Intensity or amplitude frequency or pitch

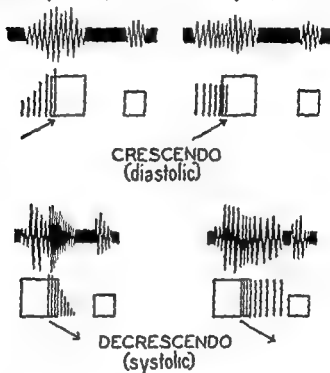


FIG. 87. Illustration of crescendo and decrescendo systolic and diastolic murmurs. Murmurs may be crescendo or decrescendo in pitch or intensity of sound. Various combinations such as decrescendo-crescendo, crescendo-decrescendo, etc., are observed.

the blood are relatively great. Furthermore, the opening in the stenotic mitral valve is usually relatively large by comparison with the openings with other valvular lesions.

The relationships of the murmur to the electrocardiogram, jugular pulse record and heart sounds should be thoroughly learned by the student. The principles involved should be obvious and will not be discussed in detail here.

The late diastolic crescendo rumble often builds up rapidly in intensity and ends with a loud "booming" first heart sound (Fig. 88). The cause of the loud booming first sound is not well understood.

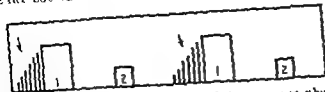


Fig. 88—Illustration by conventional method of the murmur in which the first resembles diastolic mitral murmur stereotypes and then terminates suddenly in a loud "booming" first sound.

There is often a systolic click (Fig. 89) associated with mitral stenosis the mechanism of which is also unknown.

100-
(89)



Fig. 89—The systolic click encountered in mitral stenosis. Its mechanism is unknown. It is a high pitched short metallic sound.

Normal sinus rhythm—Auricular fibrillation



There may be an *early diastolic decrescendo murmur* in mitral stenosis however (Figs. 90 and 91). This again is not surprising when we consider the hemodynamics of the heart for when the left ventricle goes into diastole the intraventricular pressure falls rapidly and the pressure built up in the left atrium from the blood which goes on to fill the lungs during this difference in pressure the ventricle fills. Now decreases the difference in pressure and rate of blood flow decreases the murmur therefore progressively decreases in intensity and is decrescendo in nature (Fig. 91).

Murmur—The murmur is *low in pitch, rumbling in quality and faint in intensity* because the pressure gradient between the left atrium and left ventricle is relatively small. In other words the force with which the left atrium ejects blood into the ventricle is relatively small and turbulence is not apt to be as great as with some of the other types of murmurs (aortic stenosis, mitral insufficiency) in which the forces responsible for the flow of

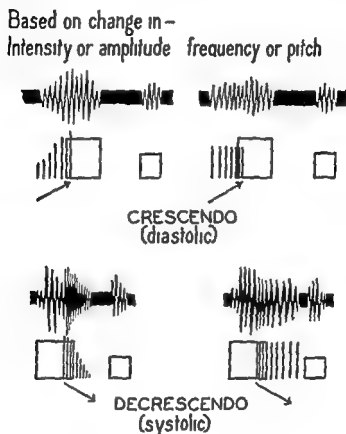


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The relationships of the murmur to the electrocardiogram, jugular pulse record and heart sounds should be thoroughly learned by the student. The principles involved should be obvious and will not be discussed in detail here.

The late diastolic crescendo rumble often builds up rapidly in intensity and ends with a loud "booming" first heart sound (Fig. 88). The cause of the loud booming first sound is not well understood.

Incidentally the sound tracings of murmurs do not show decrescendo or crescendo characteristics, as is usually diagrammed. They merely indicate variations in frequency and amplitude (Figs 56 and 57).

Because these murmurs are relatively low in intensity, they are sharply localized (to an area of 2 or 3 square centimeters) and are heard best near the apex where the left ventricle is nearest the thoracic wall just medial to the apex of the heart. The murmur is often elicited best by bringing the patient's heart near the anterior thoracic wall. This is accomplished by having the patient lie on his left side or lean forward to bring the anterior

a murmur similar to that described previously for the murmur

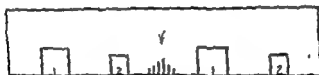


Fig. 57 The crescendo-decrescendo mid-diastolic low-pitched rumble of mitral stenosis

Pathology—Mitral stenosis is usually the result of rheumatic fever. It may result from congenital malformations, neoplastic growths in the region of the valve, intra-atrial thrombotic formation (bail valve thrombosis, which as a murmur curiosa may produce complete obstruction to the A opening) and vegetations of subacute bacterial endocarditis and lupus

insufficiency. This

late murmur (Fig.

58) is blowing back into the left ventricle during diastole through the region of the posterior aortic cuspid valve the

as the aortic valve remains partially closed. This results in stenosis and interference with blood flow from the left atrium with turbulence of flow and sound or murmur production. The murmur usually has the same characteristics as those of relatively mild organic stenosis.

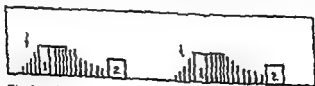


Fig. 58 The late diastolic low-pitched rumbling crescendo Austin Flint murmur. Consult the text for details.

Quite frequently a patient with mitral stenosis will present both the early decrescendo rumbling murmur and the late crescendo murmur (Fig. 91). Depending upon the cardiac rate, cardiac mechanism and variations in hemodynamics there may be a mid-diastolic, low-pitched, rumbling murmur. This murmur may be crescendo-decrescendo in nature (Fig. 92).

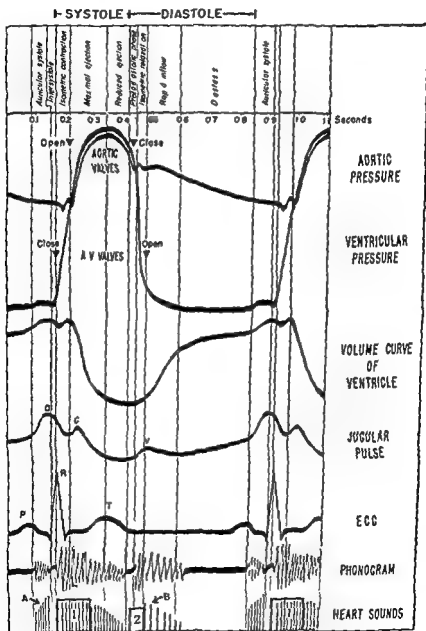


FIG. 91. Illustration of the early decrescendo diastolic murmur (arrow B) of mitral stenosis. Consult the text for details.

There often is a sound heard in mitral stenosis called the opening snap. This is caused by sudden opening of the mitral valve by the relatively high pressure in the left atrium. The sound is not a splitting of the second mitral sound but a third heart sound which precedes the normal third heart sound (Fig. 96).

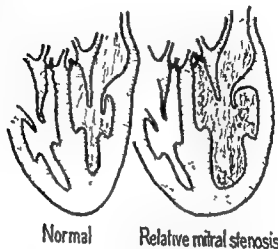


FIG. 95.—Illustration of the mechanism by which dilatation of the left ventricle results in relative mitral stenosis.

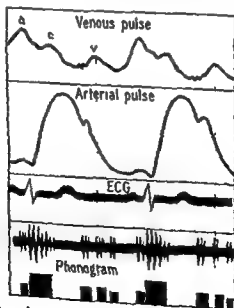


FIG. 96.—Illustration of the opening snap of mitral stenosis. The sounds in order are fourth first second opening snap and third.

Another type of functional mitral stenosis is the so-called *relative stenosis* of left ventricular enlargement (Fig 95). This is not a true stenosis in that there is no interference with or obstruction to the flow of blood from the left atrium into the left ventricle. Because of the dilated and large left ventricle the blood passes through a *relatively* narrow mitral

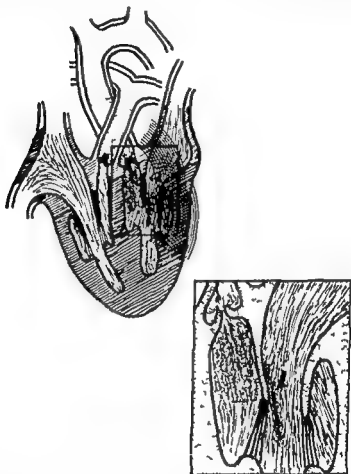
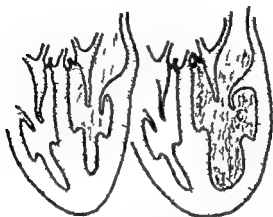


FIG 94—Diagram showing the mechanism by which aortic insufficiency produces the Austin Flint murmur. The blood regurgitating into the left ventricle from the aorta strikes against the anterior leaflet of the mitral valve. Since the pressure from the aorta is greater than that from the left atrium the mitral valve is held partially closed, resulting in a functional type of mitral stenosis.

opening, resulting therefore in turbulence of flow and murmur production. Any factor which produces left ventricular dilatation can produce this type of rumbling or low pitched late diastolic murmur. For example, any disease that produces strain on the left ventricle, such as diastolic hypertension, coarctation of the aorta, hyperthyroidism, and the like will produce the murmur. The murmur has the same characteristics as those of mild organic mitral stenosis, except that it is less intense and usually occurs only in late diastole.

There often is a unilateral mitral stenosis called the opening snap. This is caused by sudden opening of the mitral valves by the relatively high pressure in the left atrium. The sound is not a splitting of the second mitral sound but a third heart sound which precedes the normal third heart sound (fig. 91).



Normal

Relative mitral stenosis

Illustration of the mitral valve in normal and in relative mitral stenosis.

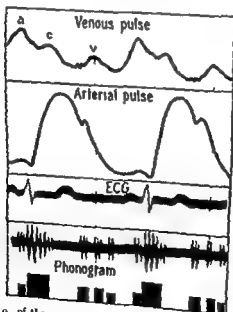


Figure 91. Ratio of the opening snap of the mitral valve. The first opening snap is the first sound, the second opening snap is the second sound, and the third opening snap is the third sound.

There may be other changes in the sounds in mitral stenosis which are usually of two origins. (1) The second heart sound is often changed in mitral stenosis. Because of the high pulmonary artery pressure, the pulmonary valves close vigorously and the second or pulmonary component of the second heart sound is accentuated. This produces a more readily apparent splitting of the second heart sound over the pulmonary valvular area (Fig. 97).

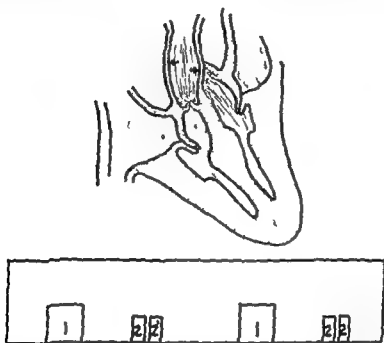


FIG. 97 — The increased pressure in the pulmonary circuit (upper diagram of figure) brought about by the mitral stenosis often results in vigorous closure of the pulmonary valve. This vigorous closure of the pulmonary and aortic valves produces a more readily detectable splitting of the second heart sound (lower part of figure) at the base of the heart.

(2) A third or extra sound may be separated from the second mitral sound by more than 0.11 second (mean 0.11 second) in which case it usually represents the beginning of the rumble and is often confused with the physiologic third sound.

It is felt that these sounds including the opening snap originate from the mitral valve since they always occur at the summit of the r wave of the jugular pulse tracing and persist during auricular fibrillation. The high intra-auricular pressure resulting from the mitral stenosis forces the mitral valve open suddenly when the ventricle goes into diastole.

Tricuspid Stenosis — Tricuspid stenosis, a rare entity, has the same characteristics etiology and mechanisms of production as mitral stenosis. It is therefore unnecessary to enter into a detailed discussion of this clinical state and its associated murmurs and thrill. The relative positions in the chest for the two murmurs are shown in figure 98.

Mitral Insufficiency or Regurgitation—When the mitral valve is insufficient or incompetent it fails to perform its sole function that is to prevent the flow of blood from the left ventricle to the left atrium during

left ventricle escapes through this opening. At the close of the systole of the ventricle the intraventricular pressure is considerably higher than the intra-atrial pressure. These relatively great differences in pressure result in rapid flow of blood usually through a rather small opening be-

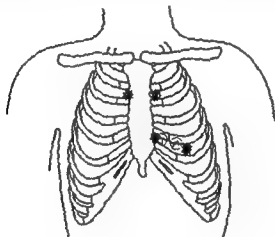


Fig. 18—Topographic diagram of the relative positions of the heart and lungs.

tween the mitral leaflets. As previously mentioned this results in turbulence of flow with the formation of a high pitched murmur (Fig. 19). Since the murmur is produced during the systolic phase of the ventricle (or heart) it is a *systolic murmur*.

The murmur usually occurs early in systole becoming progressively more intense then less intense as systole progresses. The murmur usually starts with the beginning or end of the first heart sound and persists for a variable length of time. It may extend throughout cardiac systole that is to the beginning of the second heart sound.

When the systolic murmur of mitral insufficiency is associated with mitral stenosis there may be a clicking almost metallic sound superimposed on the systolic murmur. This click varies in its position in the systolic phase of the cycle.

The relationship of the murmur to the simultaneous electrocardiogram, venous pulse, and heart sounds should be learned (Fig. 100). Furthermore, the reason for these relationships should be mastered to ensure adequate knowledge of the hemodynamic mechanisms responsible for the murmur.

The murmur is heard best near or at the apex of the heart—that is, over the clinical mitral valve area. The murmur is transmitted, as a rule, laterally to the axillary line. When it is intense, it may be heard over the entire precordium or chest.

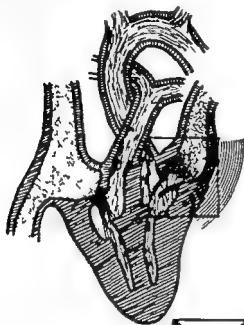


Fig. 100
rel. well

A good rule to remember about the *transmission of murmurs* is that they tend to be transmitted in the direction of flow of the blood which is responsible for the turbulence producing them. Of course, such factors as the nature of intervening tissue and proximity to the thoracic wall also aid in determining the site at which the murmur will be best heard.

The most common systolic murmur at the apical region of the heart is not due to organic heart disease but is a *functional murmur* that is one not due to organic valvular disease itself. The functional murmurs often have no known cause. Many are associated with systemic or noncardiac infections, many occur in anemic states (*hemie murmur*) and others are associated with cardiac or left ventricular dilatation.

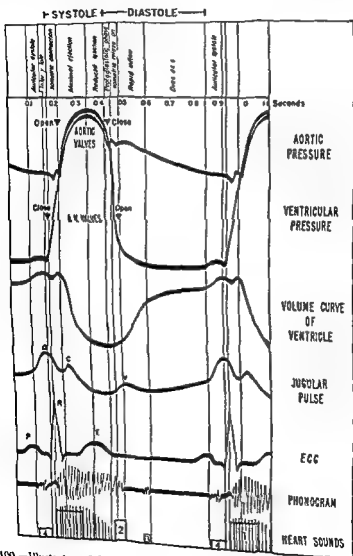
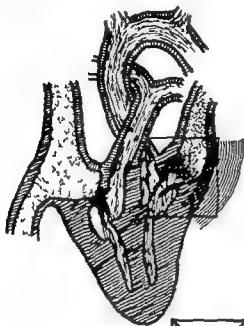


FIG. 100.—Illustration of the systolic murmur of mitral valve insufficiency in relation to other cardiac phenomena.

The relationship of the murmur to the simultaneous electrocardiogram, venous pulse, and heart sounds should be learned (Fig. 100). Furthermore, the reason for these relationships should be mastered to ensure adequate knowledge of the hemodynamic mechanisms responsible for the murmur.

The murmur is heard best near or at the apex of the heart—that is, over the clinical mitral valvular area. The murmur is transmitted, as a rule, laterally to the axillary line. When it is intense, it may be heard over the entire precordium or chest.



When mitral valvular insufficiency is present, the murmur is heard particularly well at the mitral valvular leaflets open.

A good rule to remember about the *transmission of murmurs* is that they tend to be transmitted in the direction of flow of the blood which is responsible for the turbulence producing them. Of course, such factors as the nature of intervening tissue and proximity to the thoracic wall also aid in determining the site at which the murmur will be best heard.

muscle function and laxness of the musculature resulting in increased muscle sound production.

Pathology—The principal causes of organic mitral valvular dysfunction with incompetence or insufficiency are rheumatic fever, arteriosclerosis, congenital defects and vegetative growths on the leaflets (subacute bacterial endocarditis, lupus erythematosus disseminatus). The functional

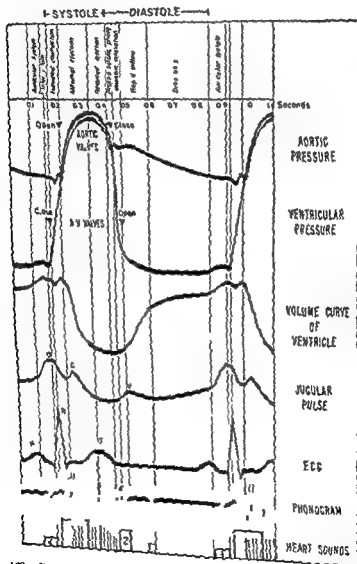


Fig. 102 Illustration of the systolic aortic murmur of aortic stenosis in relation to other cardiac phenomena.

The *hemic murmur* is said to be produced by the reduced viscosity of the blood associated with the low hemoglobin erythropenia and associated low concentration of plasma proteins. Fluids low in viscosity are more susceptible to turbulence of flow. In anemia the blood of low viscosity becomes turbulent as it passes around the papillary muscles and chordae tendinae. Such a concept is highly theoretic however, and awaits proof. The most likely cause of the hemic murmur is dilatation of the left ventricle produced by insufficient oxygen supply.

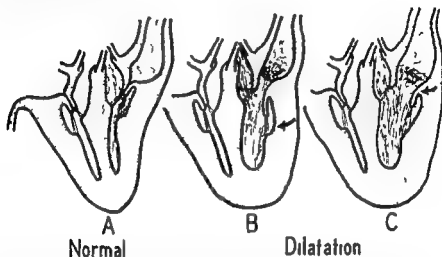


FIG 101 Diagrammatic representation of the mechanism by which dilatation of the left ventricle results in mitral insufficiency. Part A shows the mitral valve of the normal heart properly closed and retained in the proper position by the chordae tendineae. When the ventricle dilates the walls expand centrifugally, displacing the papillary muscles and attachments of the chordae tendineae. The fibrous chordae tendineae do not stretch in this process, therefore during the early period of systole they hold the mitral valves partly open (Part B) since they are not long enough to allow the mitral leaflets to approximate properly. This is the most important factor responsible for functional mitral insufficiency. The valve remains insufficient for a long period of the systolic phase as shown in the almost completely evacuated ventricle of Part B. There is an additional slight dilatation of the mitral ring (Part C) whenever the ventricles dilate.

The functional systolic mitral murmur of mitral insufficiency produced by dilatation of the left ventricle is probably attributable to the following factors:

1. When the left ventricle is dilated the papillary muscles tend to move away from the valvular leaflets. With the chordae tendineae unable to approximate completely, the mitral valve is unable to close completely, thus enlarging the cross sectional area of the orifices. The leaflets remain the same size and therefore are unable to close the mitral orifice completely.
2. A third factor contributing to the murmur of left ventricular dilatation is its "flabby" nature. There is the associated impairment of papillary

The murmur of aortic stenosis is transmitted into the arteries of the neck since the blood is flowing in that direction when it is produced. The murmur is of the decrescendo type for the pressure gradient (difference between intraventricular and intra-aortic pressures) is greatest early in systole. As the aortic pressure increases and this gradient becomes less the rate of blood flow through the aortic opening progressively decreases and the murmur accordingly decreases in intensity (Fig. 102).

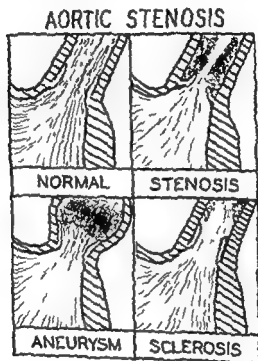


Fig. 104. The common factor is responsible for an aortic systolic murmur. Here it is

Aortic stenosis is usually produced by a

overriding the valve to function mechanically as efficiently as possible (Fig. 105)

insufficiency associated with left ventricular dilatation results from clinical states which produce strain on the left ventricular musculature (diastolic hypertension, aortic stenosis, aortic insufficiency) and acute myocarditis (rheumatic, diphtheritic, acute nephritic, etc.).

It is well to remember that the lesion of organic stenosis not only interferes with blood flow through the mitral opening into the ventricle but also interferes with closure of the valve during systole. Therefore mitral stenosis is almost invariably accompanied by a systolic murmur of mitral insufficiency.

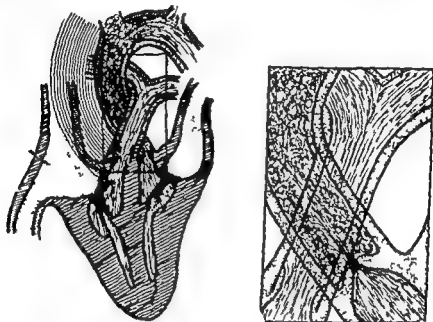


FIG. 103.—Diagram of the mechanism of the turbulence of flow in aortic stenosis. This is responsible for the systolic murmur. It is during systole that blood flows through the aortic valve into the aorta.

The Aortic Valve

Aortic Stenosis. As a result of narrowing (stenosis) of the aortic orifice a systolic high pitched murmur is found over the aortic valvular area (Fig. 102).

When the left ventricle goes into systole and the pressure within the ventricle exceeds that in the aorta, blood flows out of the ventricle into the aorta. If there is thickening of the aortic cusps or narrowing of the opening, the rapidly flowing blood passing the constricted region becomes turbulent (Fig. 103) with the resultant formation of murmurs. Since blood flows out through the aortic opening at a great speed and under high pressure, the murmur is high pitched. When the stenosis is great or the opening small, the turbulence is more vigorous and the murmur is harsh and loud. Figure 104 shows the turbulence of flow in (1) *aortic stenosis*, (2) *aortic plaques* and (3) *aortic aneurysm*.

aortic cusps and ring such as syphilitic valvulitis result in incompetence of the aortic valve so that when the ventricle is in diastole and the intraventricular pressure level is lower than that in the aorta the aortic cusps fail to support the blood and it therefore regurgitates rapidly into the left ventricle past the partially closed aortic cusps. Turbulence of flow therefore results and a murmur is produced (Fig. 107). The murmur

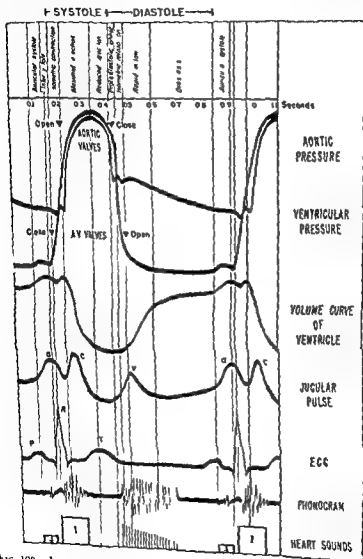


FIG. 107
relation to the
murmurs

The aortic second sound is often less intense because of the lower pressure and reduced volume of blood pumped into the aorta. This occurs because of the obstruction to blood flow offered by the stenosis.

A systolic murmur of a relative or functional aortic stenosis is produced by dilatation of the root of the aorta or projection of an arteriosclerotic calcified plaque into the aortic lumen (Fig. 104). Congenital atresia of the aorta (coarctation of the aorta) will also produce the same findings.

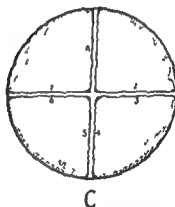
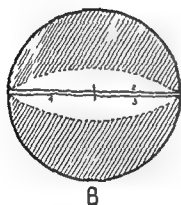
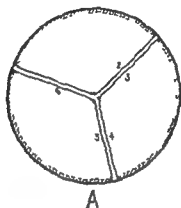


FIG. 104. Diagrams showing the cup in each of the three different positions of the stenotic area.

described previously for aortic stenosis, except that the murmur is most intense at a different point on the chest. True aortic stenosis is more likely to have an associated thrill than are the other states which produce a systolic aortic murmur.

Aortic Insufficiency, Regurgitation or Incompetence. The murmur of aortic regurgitation is diastolic in time (Fig. 106). This is logical when considered from the standpoint of cardiac hemodynamics and the anatomic defect. When the left ventricle is in diastole the aortic valve supports the blood in the aorta (under high pressure) and prevents it from flowing back into the ventricle which is under low pressure. Diseases of the

The duration of the murmur varies usually extending throughout the entire diastolic period of the blood which

The murmur produces the m
heart (Fig. 108)
at the apical region of the heart and is often readily heard in all three areas. The murmur may be pronounced at any one of these areas. At

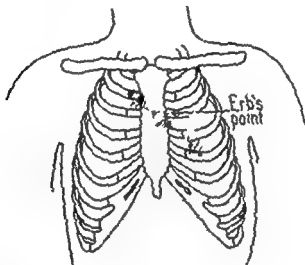


FIG. 108. Topographical distribution of the diastolic murmur of aortic regurgitation. It is most intense over the aortic area; then at Erb's point and then at the apical region. It is transmitted to the back and to the axilla. The area of the apex of the heart is indicated by a dot.

Erb's point (third and fourth left intercostal parasternal area) the heart is near the thoracic wall and the turbulent blood is relatively near the chest piece of the stethoscope.

The rumbling *Austin Flint* murmur (a functional diastolic murmur of

For text books on physiology for details of the anatomic changes in these diseases.

pr

fm

re

is high-pitched and blowing in character because the opening in the aortic valve is usually relatively small and the flow back into the left ventricle is rapid. The murmur is *decrecendo* in character because the difference in pressure (or pressure gradient) is greatest when the ventricle first goes into diastole. At that time the intraventricular pressure is near zero and the pressure in the aorta is relatively high. As the ventricle fills and

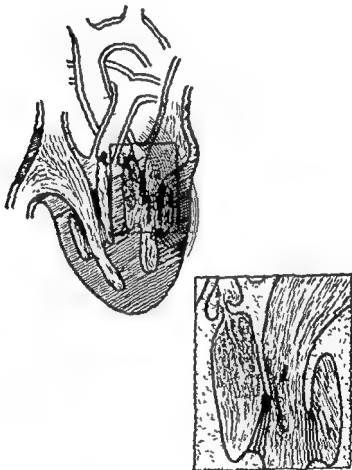


FIG. 107.—Diagram of the mechanism of the Austin Flint murmur. The pressure of the blood flowing back from the aorta into the left ventricle strikes against the anterior leaflet of the mitral valve held partially closed, thereby resulting in functional mitral stenosis.

its pressure rises, the pressure in the aorta progressively falls, thus there is a progressive decrease in the rate of flow of blood back into the ventricle and consequently a progressive diminution in the intensity of the murmur through diastole.

The duration of the murmur varies usually extending throughout the entire diastolic period.

The murmur is transmitted in the direction of flow of the blood which produces the murmur. Therefore it is transmitted toward the apex of the heart (Fig. 108). The murmur is heard best at the aortic area, Erb's point or the apical region of the heart and is often readily heard in all three areas. The murmur may be pronounced at any one of these areas. At

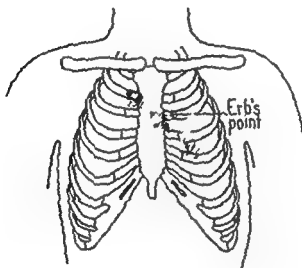


Fig. 108.—Topographic illustration of the diastolic murmur.

the sound is loudest at the apex and is heard best at the apex of the heart.

Erb's point is the point

located at the junction of the third and fourth ribs on the left side.

Textbooks of pathology and of the anatomy of the heart should be consulted for the anatomical changes in these diseases.

The

pro-

ture

the aortic murmur and a diastolic murmur of a blowing or high pitched

type, a so-called "to-and-fro" murmur. This is more likely to occur in syphilitic aortic regurgitation. Rheumatic fever and arteriosclerosis result in predominance of stenosis (systolic murmur).

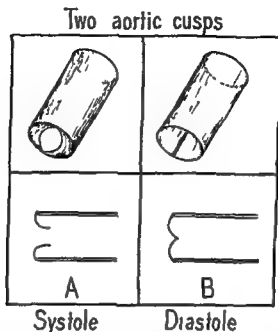


FIG. 100 — When there are two aortic cusps rather than three (a congenital anomaly) stenosis results but insufficiency is not likely to develop. The valves cannot open completely during systole (Part A) producing stenosis and a systolic murmur but they close properly (Part B). In organic disease of the cusps both stenosis and insufficiency are usually associated for the cusps do not function properly during systole and diastole. This is an important point of differentiation between acquired and congenital aortic stenosis. The same congenital defect may occur in the pulmonary valve.

A congenital aortic defect (two aortic cusps) usually results in only a stenotic murmur (systolic) and no diastolic murmur. These two cusps fail to open completely but do close completely (Fig. 100). This is usually of diagnostic importance.

Functional aortic insufficiency with the typical high-pitched blowing murmur may occur in association with *acute myocarditis* or with *acute aortitis*, in which the aortic ring or region of attachment of the cusps of the aortic orifice is dilated. This results in an increase in the cross-sectional area of the aortic valvular orifice. The cusps are therefore unable to close the opening completely during diastole and blood regurgitates into the left ventricle, resulting in the production of a murmur. *Severe diastolic hypertension* may also produce this murmur. The high diastolic pressure distends the root of the aorta, increasing the cross-sectional area of the aortic orifice and producing aortic valvular incompetence.

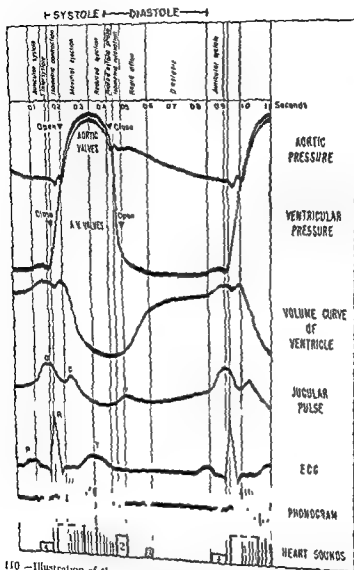


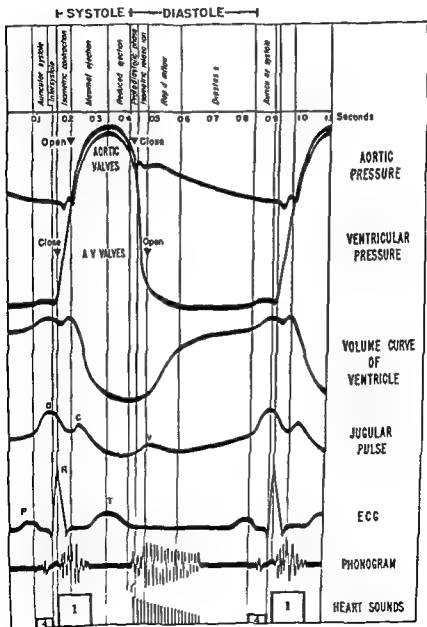
FIG. 110.—Illustration of the murmur of pulmonary stenosis with its relation to other cardiac phenomena

The Pulmonary Valve

Pulmonary S:

usually due to congenital atresia, scarring from rheumatic fever, or vegetative growths (bacterial endocarditis or lupus erythematosus disseminatus) on the cusps.

In pulmonary stenosis the pulmonary second sound is often greatly reduced in intensity. This is due to the reduced pressure in the pulmonary artery resulting from the decreased volume of blood emptied into the pulmonary artery. The volume output and pressure are reduced by the obstructing stenosis.



possible for the murmur may reside in the p...
... forward until the anterior surface

The murmur is a soft to moderate intensity which occurs early in systole and extends throughout systole and tends to disappear on deep inspiration. It has been found to occur in about 80 per cent of normal medical students.



by
the
normal
d. gran

Fig. 2

Pulmonary Insufficiency Regurgitation or Incompetence—This is a rare cause of murmurs. The murmur is diastolic in time (Fig. 111) and it may occur in congenital defects of the pulmonary valve or in organic rheumatic disease. It has essentially the same characteristics as the murmur of aortic insufficiency except that it is heard over the pulmonary valvular area and is transmitted downward along the left margin of the sternum.

artery into the right ventricle with turbulence of flow and murmur production (Fig. 112). A good example of this type of functional diastolic pulmonary vascular murmur is seen in mitral stenosis. Because of the narrowing of the mitral orifice blood passes into the left ventricle with difficulty and therefore accumulates under high pressure in the left atrium, pulmonary veins and capillaries and arterial system. This results in dilatation of the pulmonary ring and functional regurgitation. This particular murmur is known as the *Graham Steell murmur*.

The Tricuspid Valve

Stenosis of the tricuspid valve is rare. The etiology, hemodynamics, mechanisms and characteristics of the murmur are essentially the same as for mitral stenosis (Fig. 113). The main difference is the location of the murmur which is just to the left of the sternum at the level of the fifth rib or intercostal space. The jugular pulse record aids in the diagnosis of this condition.

Tricuspid Insufficiency, Regurgitation or Incompetence—This is a common syndrome when the functional type of tricuspid insufficiency is included in the consideration. The entity on an organic basis is not uncommon, however. The murmur is systolic in time (Fig. 114) and has the same characteristics and mechanisms described for mitral insufficiency except that it is located over the tricuspid area and is transmitted to the right in many instances.

The configuration of the jugular venous pulse tracing is rather characteristic (Fig. 114). The c wave is greatly exaggerated for when the right ventricle goes into systole the incompetent tricuspid valve permits blood to regurgitate into the right atrium veins of the neck, inferior vena cava and hepatic veins (with resultant pulsating liver) (Fig. 115). This regurgitated blood produces an increase in the c wave to an extent pro-

any other murmur de-

velops a great enough to produce a palpable vibration (thrill) of the overlying tissues. The thrill is usually most intense over the area at which the murmur is most intense.

Congenital Cardiac Anomalies

The number and types of cardiac anomalies are far too great to present completely in this type of monograph. Once the student has learned the fundamental principles of murmurs and hemodynamics he can identify many of the more

commonly the interventricular septum is closed completely, resulting in a *Roger's murmur*. It is usually

enters into the right ventricle with turbulence of flow and murmur production (Fig. 112). A good example of this type of functional diastolic pulmonary valvular murmur is seen in mitral stenosis. Because of the narrowing of the mitral orifice, blood passes into the left ventricle with difficulty and therefore accumulates under high pressure in the left atrium, pulmonary veins and capillaries and arterial system. This results in dilatation of the pulmonary ring and functional regurgitation. This particular murmur is known as the *Graham Steell* murmur.

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any other murmur described. It is great enough to produce a palpable vibration (thrill) of the overlying tissues. The thrill is usually most intense over the area at which the murmur is most intense.

Congenital Cardiac Anomalies

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is not infrequently the interventricular septum fails to close completely resulting in a *Roger s* murmur. It is usually

due to failure of closure of the membranous portion of the interventricular septum (Fig 116). The murmur is systolic in time because the pressure within the left ventricle exceeds that within the right, and therefore blood flows from the left ventricle to the right ventricle when the two enter systole simultaneously. Since aerated blood is mixing with reduced hemoglobin, no cyanosis results. Only when the septal defect is large (cor triloculare bicaudate) and there is churning with more thorough mixing

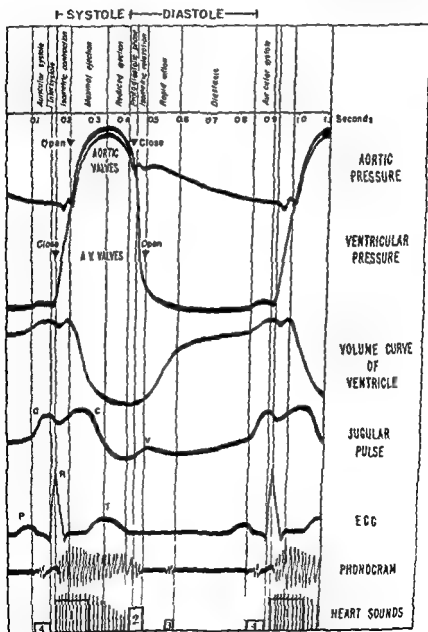


FIG. 114 — Illustration of the murmur of tricuspid insufficiency

of blood from the two ventricles is then equal. This is relatively rare
 and variable with only a short life (hours to weeks). In general the
 (Fig 117) This murmur
 murmur described previously

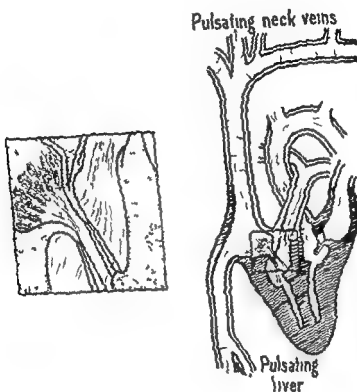


FIG 110.—Diagram of the heart showing the right atrium superior

The murmur is *most intense* near the left margin of the sternum at the level of the fourth chondrosternal articulation and intercostal space. It is best heard above the tricuspid valvular area. This area is often referred to as *Roger's area* (Fig 118). The transmission of the murmur varies with its intensity; if intense it may be transmitted over the entire precordium and often to the posterior thorax. A *thrill* is often felt with the murmur being *most intense* over the region where the murmur is loudest.

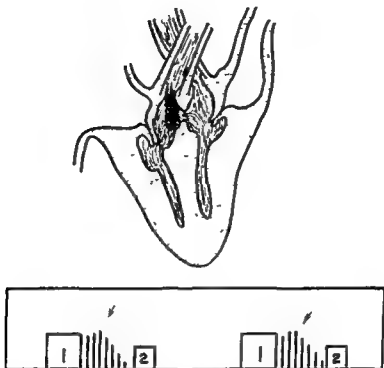
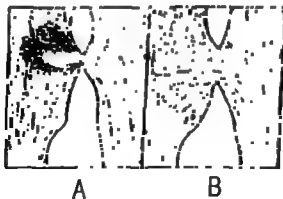


FIG 116 — Illustration of the manner in which a defect in the interventricular septum results in turbulence of flow and a systolic murmur. Since the pressure is greater in the left ventricle than that in the right, aerated blood mixes on the right side of the heart and no cyanosis occurs. The murmur, *Roger's murmur*, is shown at the lower part of the figure. The defect is most frequent at the superior or membranous portion of the interventricular septum.



Patent Interauricular Septum—This is a common entity when patency of the foramen ovale is included in the group. As a rule the opening is so small that no murmur can be detected. This is also explained by the pressure differences between the two atria being too small to result in sufficiently rapid flow of blood through the opening to produce turbulence.

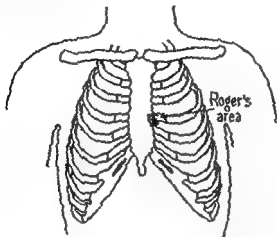


FIG. 118 The point (shaded area) on the chest where the Roger's murmur of a patent interauricular septum is most intense. It is known as Roger's area.

When the opening is large enough a presystolic-systolic murmur results (Fig. 119). The flow is from the left to the right atrium. The murmur has essentially the same characteristics as the other systolic murmurs previously described. Many clinicians are of the opinion that the systolic murmur of atrial septal defect results from the pulmonary vascular plethora and therefore is produced in the engorged pulmonary arteries and not at the septal defect.

It is loudest over the midsternal region at the level of the second intercostal space or in some cases just to the left of the midsternal line (Fig. 120). It is not transmitted widely unless it is intense and it tends to be transmitted into the left infrascapular region and in the direction of blood flow in the pulmonary artery. A thrill is often associated with the murmur being most intense in the area where the murmur is loudest.



FIG. 119—The presystolic-systolic murmur of patent interauricular septum.

This defect is not associated with cyanosis as oxygenated blood flows into the right atrium. There is cyanosis when the septal defect is extremely large and much mixing and churning of blood takes place (cor triloculare biventriculare).

Pulmonary Stenosis—This has been discussed under the general presentation of pulmonary valvular disease.

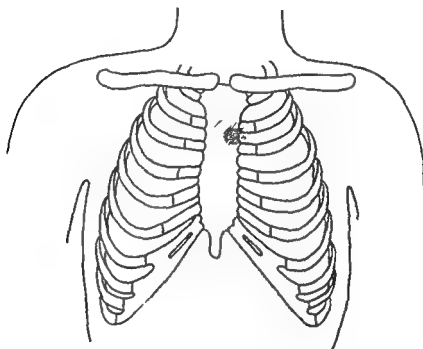


FIG. 120 Topographic illustration of the point (shaded area) at which the murmur of interatrial septal defect is a fortiori.

Aortic Stenosis and Coarctation of the Aorta These defects have been discussed under aortic valvular disease in general.

Combination Anomalies—There are frequently combinations of anomalous defects of the heart as for any organ system. When this is true various defects will present their respective murmurs. A good example of this is *tetralogy of Fallot* in which the murmurs of pulmonary stenosis and patent interventricular septum occur together. The student should be alert to such combined anomalies when listening to the heart. These will be discussed further with the clinical presentation of congenital cardiac disease.

Patent Ductus Arteriosus—This is a fairly common congenital defect which has interesting associated murmurs. There is a characteristic *machine murmur* (Fig. 121 B) which is simple to understand if one is aware of the anatomic defect present and the respective pressure levels. In the typical instance there is a continuous murmur because the pressure

in the aorta is at all times higher than that in the pulmonary artery (Fig. 121). Consequently, at each systole the pressure in the aorta is much greater than the pressure in the pulmonary artery. The blood is driven rapidly from aorta to pulmonary artery because the pressure difference is

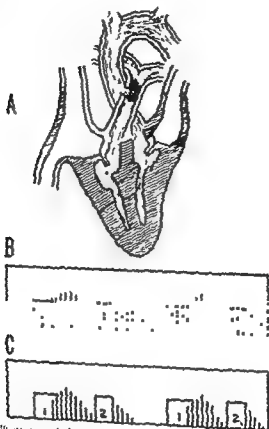


Fig. 121. Illustration of the mechanism (Part A) of the turbulent flow in congenital pulmonary stenosis of the pulmonary artery (Part B) and the turbulent flow in the aorta (Part C).

smaller than the pressure in the aorta.

The murmurs are most intense in the second intercostal space slightly to the left of the sternum. They may be transmitted widely over the upper portion of the left hemithorax and precordium.

A continuous *thrill* with systolic exacerbations may be associated with the murmur. There is no cyanosis since oxygenated hemoglobin is being added to reduced hemoglobin in the pulmonary circulation and no reduced hemoglobin enters the aorta and general circulation.

Not infrequently only a *systolic murmur* is present or two separate and distinct systolic and diastolic murmurs are heard (Fig. 121 C). The diagnosis is difficult when this is true. It is particularly apt to occur early in life and usually occurs when the opening is small or the duct enters the aorta or pulmonary artery at an extremely acute angle. At times there may be only a systolic murmur.

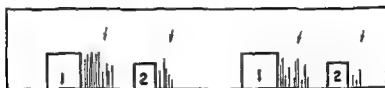


FIG. 122.—Illustration of the systolic and diastolic sound of a pericardial friction rub.

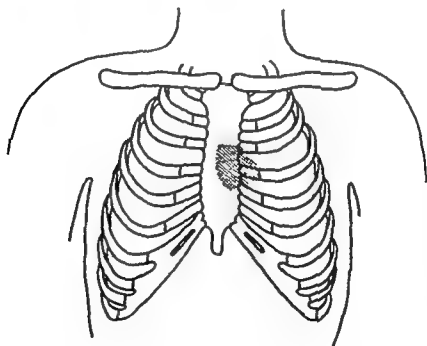


FIG. 123.—Topographic illustration of the most likely location of a pericardial friction rub.

Pericardial Friction Rub

As a result of inflammation of the pericardium its visceral and parietal surfaces are roughened. This roughening results in a considerable amount of friction between the epicardium and pericardium during systolic and

diastolic movements of the heart. This in turn results in sound vibrations or a friction rub (Fig. 122). The sound is intensified by pressure over the precordium. It is usually most intense near the basal region of the heart at the level of the third or fourth intercostal spaces near the left margin of the sternum (Fig. 123). The intensity of the friction rub varies with respiration but is not dependent upon it as is a pleural friction rub. Obviously, the drier the pericardial sac the louder is the friction rub. When the pericardial and pericardial surfaces are separated by pericardial fluid the rub disappears.

Miscellaneous Extracardiac Sounds Heard Over the Heart

There are many sounds heard over the precordial region which are extracardiac in origin. One should become thoroughly acquainted with them in order to avoid the error of considering them significant. Many normal individuals have been made to pay extra premiums or actually

of these extracardiac sounds and the many diversified explanations concerning their origin, only a few will be considered.

Xiphosternal Crunch.—The term xiphosternal crunch has been employed as a general term to include most if not all of the extracardiac sounds. This term is not satisfactory since it implies a mechanism for the sounds without such a mechanism exists.

such as vibrations of the chordae
the thoracic wall and cartilages
of them seem to be produced
the xiphosternal articulation

caused by movement of the articulation on respiration by the heart pressure over the sternum etc. It has been estimated that these extracardiac sounds may be heard in a little over 20 per cent of normal young persons.

Cardiorespiratory Sounds.—Cardiorespiratory sounds are frequently heard. These sounds are produced by the beating heart or by the lungs.

the sounds are altered greatly or may even be eliminated. This is an important direction for identifying them. These sounds may be remarkably different in character, varying from a blowing murmur to high pitched whistles. They usually occur during cardiac systole but may be heard during any phase of the cardiac cycle, varying a great deal with the cycle.

Pneumothorax is often associated with a peculiar snapping, or cracking sound related to a pleural pericardial knock (Fig. 124).

A continuous *thrill* with systolic exacerbations may be associated with the murmur. There is no cyanosis, since oxygenated hemoglobin is being added to reduced hemoglobin in the pulmonary circulation and no reduced hemoglobin enters the aorta and general circulation.

Not infrequently, only a *systolic murmur* is present or two *separate and distinct*, systolic and diastolic, *murmurs* are heard (Fig 121, C). The diagnosis is difficult when this is true. It is particularly apt to occur early in life and usually occurs when the opening is small or the duct enters the aorta or pulmonary artery at an extremely acute angle. At times there may be only a systolic murmur.

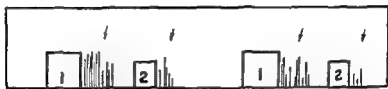


FIG 122 —Illustration of the systolic and diastolic sounds of a pericardial friction rub

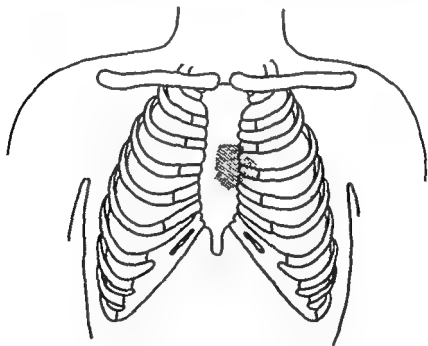


FIG 123 —Topographic illustration of the most likely location of a pericardial friction rub

Pericardial Friction Rub

As a result of inflammation of the pericardium, its visceral and parietal surfaces are roughened. This roughening results in a considerable amount of friction between the pericardium and pericardium during systolic and

1 **Systole en echo** is a faint sound heard during diastole of the ventricle due to contraction of the atria (Fig 126). The faint or low intensity auricular sound suggests an echo.



Fig 126 — In complete 1:1 nodal block the frequently occurring faint atrial sound is rarely but it frequently occurs during the long periods between the ventricular contractions. The sound resulting as reflected here is termed *systole en echo*. The small black blocks at the top of the figure indicate auricular activity.

2 Occasionally by chance the mitral first sound is reinforced by an auricular contraction producing a loud sound referred to as "**bruit de canon**" (Fig 127). This may also be due to the fact that the valves were held wide open.



Fig 127 — Diagram showing the manner in which an simultaneous contraction of the atria and ventricle results in a loud sound *bruit de canon* because of the summation of the fourth and first heart sounds. The loud sounds are indicated by the first sound bar with a loud black line increasing their height. The small black blocks at the top of the figure indicate auricular activity.

3 Irregularly occurring third and fourth heart sounds resemble a "splitting" of M_2 and M_1 .

Auricular Fibrillation — Because of the irregularity the first and second sounds occur at irregular intervals and because of the variations in the force of ventricular contractions they vary in intensity. There may be groupings in threes or fours (Fig 128). Since the atria do not contract there is no fourth heart sound.



Fig 128 — Illustration of the manner in which the weak ventricular contractions...

Mediastinal Emphysema — Mediastinal emphysema regardless of the origin of the air (usually pulmonary, however), is associated with many bizarre crackling sounds. These sounds are produced by the beating heart which displaces the air into the mediastinal tissues, producing the crackling noises (Fig. 125).



FIG. 124 — Systolic and diastolic high pitched loud knock encountered occasionally in pneumothorax. These sounds are extracardiac in origin.



FIG. 125 Illustration of the short high pitched crackling sounds of mediastinal emphysema. These sounds are extracardiac in origin and are produced by the rotating and twisting heart as it presses against the bubbles of air in the mediastinum.

Hydropneumopericardium — Hydropneumopericardium may be associated with a splashing or gurgling sound as the beating heart stirs the fluid and air.

There are many other types of extracardiac sounds which may confuse the listener if he is not alert and observant. These should be kept constantly in mind.

Variations in Heart Sounds Due to Variations in Activation of the Ventricular Musculature

From the foregoing it is obvious that the heart sounds will vary in their timing if there are variations in the timing of the contractions of the various chambers of the heart. A few examples are indicated in the following paragraphs. There are many more, all of which should be predictable by the student.

Bundle Branch Block — This has been discussed in detail previously. Since the ventricles contract asynchronously, the sound produced by the mitral and tricuspid valves must occur at different times.

Complete Atrioventricular Block — With complete blocking of the A-V node, the heart sounds vary a great deal depending upon the relative sequence of contraction of the atria and ventricles. Some of the many possibilities are:

Chapter 4

THE COMMON TYPES OF HEART DISEASE

It is not intended in this compendium to present fully, or to discuss partially all of the types of cardiac disease. It is planned to introduce the student to the most common forms of heart disease and to present briefly their essential features. There are several good monographs and other publications from which more details can be obtained. The discussion to follow, therefore, cannot be considered encyclopedic.

Disease of the heart is common even more than is generally realized by the average physician. Furthermore, no one need accept such a diagnosis with a fatalistic point of view, since most heart disease is reversible. Unfortunately, however, many types still remain irreversible, and it is these which impress the physician and layman most. A patient with an irreversible heart disease can receive much benefit from proper management. For a physician to administer proper therapy he must have a thorough knowledge of cardiac anatomy, physiology and pharmacology, as well as the clinical manifestations of the normal and abnormal heart. Many unfortunate experiences in heart disease are due to poor management. Every student should make a concerted effort to learn cardiology well for heart disease is in every day problems in all fields of medicine, regardless of the specialty.

Prior to a discussion of the most frequently encountered types of heart disease the term Heart Disease should be defined in light of the usage employed throughout this compendium.

Heart disease is defined as any cardiac dysfunction which disturbs the patient in any way. The word *disease* literally means lack of ease or uneasiness.

Obviously such a definition includes not only organic cardiac disease but functional cardiac states as well. It includes not only a disturbance in cardiac reserve or inability to supply the tissues of the body with a sufficient amount of blood but also disturbances of even a mild sort, today or tomorrow. The point is, doubt about the degree to which one may even refrain from

is so important because today people are younger and more of them therefore die of cardiovascular disease. The influence of present-day methods of rapid communication, announcing

Premature Contractions and Pulsus Alternans.—Variations in the heart sounds in these conditions are discussed in Chapter 5. Illustrations (Figs. 129 and 130) are repeated here for convenience. As an exercise, the characteristics of the sounds should be studied and drawn by the student for many types of cardiac irregularities.

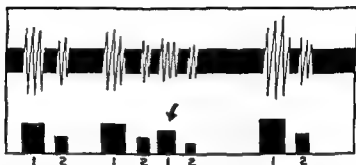


FIG. 129.—Variations in number, intensity, and temporal relations of the heart sounds in this illustration are easily understood if the hemodynamic principles are employed. The premature contraction occurs early or prematurely; it is therefore associated with sounds which appear early. Since the contraction is weak, the sounds are less intense (noted by arrow) than the regularly appearing ones. Because of the compensatory pause, the ventricles then have an opportunity to fill a great deal, therefore the next regularly appearing sounds are loud or intense. With greater filling and stretching of the ventricular muscle, the contraction is forceful (Starling's law of the heart) and the associated sounds are intense. Consult Chapter 5 for details.

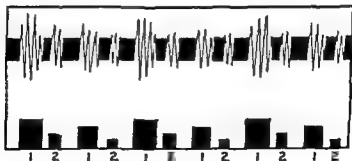


FIG. 130.—The alternate variations in intensity of the heart sounds in pulsus alternans. The loud sounds occur with the stronger contractions of the ventricles and the less intense sounds with the weaker contractions. The sounds occur on time. Consult Chapter 5 for details.

common in extracardiac infections is usually reversible and therefore is of little concern as a residual entity to the patient or his physician. Nevertheless injury to the heart with the myocardium is common, being almost invariably present in severe infections with intoxication and should not be neglected.

Types of Infections

Infections which are most prone to produce cardiac damage in the severe pyogenic infections (streptococcal staphylococcal meningococcal pneumococcal) with severe toxemia. Any infection acute or chronic, may injure the heart. The damage may be so subtle as to escape all but the most careful and meticulous clinical study. Because the injury is so likely to occur in infections the heart should be studied in all such patients especially if facilities permit. Injury may be associated with such extracardiac infections as streptococcal follicular tonsillitis pyogenic paranasal sinusitis otitis furunculosis pneumonia meningococcal meningitis childhood infections such as scarlet fever diphtheria local infections and so on. The viral and rickettsial diseases may also damage the heart.

The previously mentioned infections injure the myocardium through the medium of circulating toxins liberated by the infecting agent or microorganism. In many instances microorganisms may infect the heart directly lodging in the endocardium pericardium or myocardium. Many instances of cardiac injury occur as a result of direct involvement by diseases which may be due to infections for example rheumatic fever lupus erythematosus disseminated etc. Rheumatic fever will be discussed separately.

ACUTE MYOCARDITIS

Acute myocardial inflammation or injury is the most common type of cardiac damage associated with infections it is discussed first. The damage may follow any type of infection protozoal bacterial fungal or viral. The agent usually injures the heart by toxins which reach the myocardium by a *hematogenous* route. In some instances the organ

The myocardium is the muscle of the heart which manifests physiologic early degenerative changes such as hyaline and hydropic degeneration. When the damage is more extensive there may be fragmentation of the muscle fibers with hypertrophy and at times focal areas of necrosis such as are seen in diphtheria. There may be a slight accumulation of inflammatory cells with relatively mild injury or there may be a more extensive

mild forms the damage being reversible only

may vary slightly or to an im

the sudden cardiac deaths of relatives, friends and associates of about the patient's age who were in apparent good health is not to be underemphasized. Such announcements result in mental anguish and fear. It is necessary, therefore, in the management of patients in the clinic not to restrict the use of the term "heart disease" to irreversible condition. It will also prevent the average physician from creating a cardiac neurosis as a result of careless speech and inadequate evaluation of the cardiac and mental status of a patient.

INCIDENCE OF HEART DISEASE

It is impossible to obtain adequate data about the incidence of heart disease especially in its broad sense throughout the entire world. For this reason, the list of causes for the most frequent types of heart disease presented below is essentially an impression. Many observers may want to change the order but this is of no real consequence for the moment, especially in view of the great variations in incidence of heart disease from one section of a nation to another or from one continent to the next. For convenience of discussion, it is considered that the most common causes of heart disease for the *entire world* in descending order of incidence are as follows:

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1 Infection | 7 Syphilis |
| 2 Anemia | 8 Rheumatic fever |
| 3 Malnutrition | 9 Thyroid diseases |
| 4 Psychoneuroses | 10 Congenital anomalies |
| 5 The aging process (arteriosclerosis) | 11 Miscellaneous group of diseases |
| 6 Hypertension | |

The incidence of heart disease in the *United States* in descending order would be essentially as follows:

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| 1 Infection | 6 Rheumatic fever |
| 2 Anemia | 7 Malnutrition |
| 3 Psychoneuroses | 8 Syphilis |
| 4 The aging process (arteriosclerosis) | 9 Thyroid diseases |
| 5 Hypertension | 10 Congenital anomalies |

It is well to consider that in many instances several of the causes of heart disease are acting at one time. For example, infection, anemia and malnutrition are frequently associated and have cause and effect relationships. When considered as primary factors, however, the foregoing order of incidence is most probably correct.

HEART DISEASE PRODUCED BY INFECTION

Injury to the heart produced by infections is usually overlooked in the train of events occurring during such an episode. A patient with pneumococcal pneumonia is concerned about his pneumonia. The myocardial injury which is present to a demonstrable extent is ignored because of his anxiety over the pulmonary infection. Furthermore, the cardiac injury so

3. *Moderately severe acute myocarditis*

- (a) Same as (2)
- (b) Cardiac enlargement to a demonstrable extent by roentgenographic methods
- (c) Signs and symptoms of mild congestive heart failure, usually left ventricular
- (d) Pulsus alternans may be noted
- (e) Accentuated protodiastolic gallop rhythm

4. *Severe acute myocarditis*

- (a) Same as (3) except that all manifestations are more severe. Functional murmurs may be pronounced. The heart is usually extremely large and the signs and symptoms of congestive heart failure exaggerated. The protodiastolic gallop rhythm is more evident.
- (b) Decrease in systolic and pulse pressures
- (c) Signs of impending or existing peripheral circulatory collapse

The foregoing discussion from both the clinical and diagnostic points of view is essentially the same for any type of myocarditis whether it is due to diphtheria, postpartal sepsis, Heiler's myocarditis (isolated acute myocarditis of unknown cause), uraemia, direct infection (dysentery) of the myocardium or myocardial degeneration is a result of a systemic infection. The differences between the types are determined mainly by the systemic or extracardiac manifestations. Toxic states such as are encountered in

The course and prognosis of toxic myocarditis in the usual patient are excellent. The recovery is usually so complete that no residual is discernible by the methods available to the clinician today. It is quite possible, however, that such injuries may have a definite though subtle influence on the subsequent development of heart failure. In the more severe infections with wide spread myocardial damage the patient may progress into congestive heart failure and death from extensive myocarditis. Infective myocarditis may be a cause of sudden death especially in young people without any

the early proper treatment of infection.

the use of heart damage is estimated as a infection before any myocardial

m

Although the myocardial injury associated with infections and toxins is included under the title myocarditis, the reaction is not usually one of inflammation in the strict sense. The changes represent primarily varying degrees of degeneration, namely, cloudy swelling, hydropic changes and the like. In many instances the degenerative changes are so mild as to fail to present histologic changes, evidence of myocardial damage being limited to changes in the order of repolarization (*T* wave changes) noted electrocardiographically.

The *clinical manifestations* also vary a great deal. In the average infection such as pneumonia, sinusitis, tonsillitis or furunculosis the patient and the doctor are usually unaware of any myocardial damage. The manifestations are usually present although they may be subtle. The only evidence of injury may be electrocardiographic, that is, depression of the *S-T* segment or depression or inversion of the *T* wave in the standard or precordial leads. At times the patient experiences premature contractions which in many instances are ventricular in origin. More severe disturbances in mechanism such as auricular fibrillation and paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia may be manifested. Disturbances in mechanism are more apt to occur if there is already an underlying disease present. If the myocardial damage is more severe, the cardiac size increases, dilatation may sometimes take place and precordial discomfort occurs. The pulse rate increases out of proportion to the rise in body temperature, the usual elevation being 5 to 10 beats per 1° F. increase in temperature. The disease may progress into congestive heart failure, left, right or both, with the manifestations previously described.

If the heart is extremely dilated, there may be many types of *functional murmurs*, especially intense over the mitral area and next in prominence over the aortic area (see section on murmurs). A *protodiastolic gallop*, a rhythm, a common manifestation, is of considerable diagnostic importance since it indicates myocardial weakness (see discussion of gallop rhythm). The systolic blood pressure and pulse pressure are apt to be low in severe acute myocarditis. Signs of impending or existing *peripheral circulatory collapse* may exist.

The *laboratory data* coincide with what might be expected on the basis of the underlying infection.

The *diagnostic criteria* are

1 Mild acute myocarditis

- (a) Electrocardiographic changes such as *S-T* segment and *T* wave changes, changes in the ventricular gradient, *QRS* complex, *P-R* interval and the like.

2 Mild to moderately severe acute myocarditis

- (a) Electrocardiographic changes as in (1)
- (b) Tachycardia out of proportion to the fever
- (c) Cardiac irregularities
- (d) Precordial discomfort and palpitation
- (e) Protodiastolic gallop rhythm

without any antecedent focus of infection. Previous cardiac disease, acquired valvular deformities and congenital defects as well as debilitating states predispose to the disease.

Age The disease occurs at any age but usually in young adults.

Sex Males are more often involved than females, the ratio being 3 to 1.

The *pathologic changes* are characteristic. The inflammatory reactions with *thrombi* and *fibrin* formations vary in size, shape and locations. These *vegetations* or thrombic growths may be fixed to any part of the endocardium. They are usually attached to valvular leaflets or *chordae tendineae* and the *endocardial surfaces* of the heart chambers near the valves. These vegetations consist of a mass of colonies of bacteria, fibrin and inflammatory cells. The leaflets, chordae tendineae and endocardium may

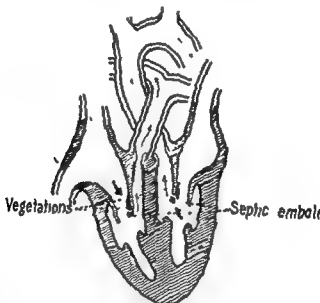


FIG. 131.—

of the right side
carried through
of the pulmonary

of the left side of the heart. emboli escape into the aorta and systemic arteries (lotted arrows) and result in septic emboli in of the systemic circulation.

become ulcerated. The septicemia (bacteremia) is established in the systemic circulation.

are arrested in small vessels where they become lodged as a seed or nucleus about which an abscess forms. The organs in which the small abscesses form are determined by the site of the vegetations (Fig. 131).

and signs of myocardial injury (electrocardiographic tachycardia etc) have disappeared. He should be observed closely as he slowly and cautiously regains the ambulatory state and resumes his daily routine. Patients frequently die suddenly while attempting to get out of bed for the first time. Any signs of myocardial excitation indicate a necessity for a return to bed. Strenuous exercise or exertion to a state of fatigue should be avoided until the period of postinfectious asthma has disappeared. Cardiac drugs are not indicated except in cases of congestive heart failure or mechanistic disturbances. Digitalis is not always efficacious in acute myocarditis. It should be remembered that most instances of myocarditis are clinically *reversible*.

Endocarditis

Endocarditis is relatively rare as an association or complication of systemic infections, however rheumatic fever and lupus erythematosus disseminatus (Libman-Sacks syndrome) may be related to infections in a broad sense. The former will be discussed separately. At times extracardiac infections such as pelvic thrombophlebitis sinusitis pyorrhea alveolaris furunculosis and many others may serve as portals of entry for organisms which lodge directly in the endocardium and grow locally to produce *bacterial endocarditis*. This is heart disease due to an infection. The infections most often *localize* to the *mitral valve*, the *aorta*, and both *mitral and aortic* in order of frequency. The pulmonary and tricuspid valves are rarely infected. Congenital defects such as a patent inter-ventricular septum are likely to become sites of bacterial growths.

Bacterial Endocarditis—Bacterial endocarditis may be classified by several methods. From the clinical point of view it is divided into

- 1 Acute
- 2 Subacute

The two differ in clinical severity and etiology as indicated in the following paragraphs.

Acute Bacterial Endocarditis—This disease results in recovery or death within two months if untreated with penicillin. Since the advent of penicillin the clinical picture has been altered considerably, that is if proper treatment is administered early.

The *etiological agents* and their incidences are essentially as follows:

	Per cent
<i>Streptococcus hemolyticus</i>	40
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	23
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	11
<i>Pneumococcus</i>	9
<i>Gonococcus</i>	4
<i>Meningococcus</i>	4
Other organisms	9

Practically any organism which enters from a focus of infection elsewhere may produce endocarditis and in some instances it may apparently develop

pneumonia or the like. The intoxication from the infection may become so pronounced as to result in toxic hepatitis with jaundice, as well as other manifestations such as delirium from toxic encephalitis, toxic myocarditis or myocardial degeneration.

2. The *septic embolic phenomenon* should in the case suspect this syndrome. It is fairly characteristic and of extreme importance in diagnosis (fig. 131). The emboli usually lodge in the tissues of the general circulation, such as the skin, spleen, lungs, etc. The emboli should be removed by the physician. The inflamed

area in the upper lip known as Osler's nodes and small red petechial areas in the skin which blanch on pressure. The blanching indicates dilated engorged blood vessels in the area immediately surrounding the infected embolus. Areas of subcutaneous hemorrhage that is purpuric areas fail to blanch on pressure since the blood cannot be squeezed away. These areas are usually tender. They occur anywhere on the skin and for this reason the entire body should be carefully inspected. *Embolism of the eye* is just as diagnostic as many. Embolism of the eye can be found in the conjunctival area of the sclera and in the fundus of the eye on ophthalmoscopic examination. Embolism of the kidney manifests itself by pain in the lumbar or renal region, tenderness over the kidney on deep palpation, definite hematuria and increase in the urinary albuminuria. Severe *focal nephritis* may result. Embolism of the spleen results in splenomegaly detected by palpation, percussion or roentgenography. The spleen is tender and the patient experiences spontaneous pain over the spleen. Embolism of the

the right side of the heart and the emboli become lodged in the pulmonary structures. Symptoms and signs of pulmonary disease occur including pain in the chest, cough, fine moist rales, hemoptysis, if much pulmonary tissue becomes infarcted and pneumonia. Evidence of

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An embolus may become lodged in the *vasa vasorum* with abscess formation weakening of the wall of the artery and development of an aneurysm from the high intra-arterial pressure. This type of aneurysm is known as a *mycotic aneurysm*. When an interatrial or interventricular septal defect is present paradoxical embolism (Fig. 132) may occur.

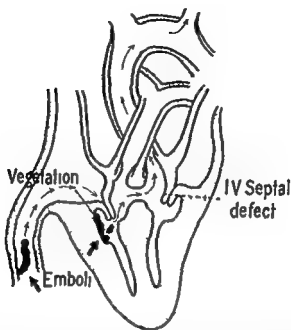


FIG. 132.—Illustration showing how a defect in the interventricular septum results in paradoxical embolism. Under such circumstances emboli from venous thrombi or from vegetations in the right side of the heart can escape to the systemic or general circulation by passing through the septal defect.

The *clinical syndrome* of acute bacterial endocarditis consists primarily of the following interrelated manifestations:

- 1 Severe systemic infection
- 2 Septic embolism
- 3 Cardiac disease or merely a murmur
- 4 Positive blood culture

1 The picture of a *severe systemic infection* with high fever is the outstanding initial manifestation. This is so true that the clinician unless he is alert is apt to consider in diagnosis some infectious disease other than

endocarditis. The fever is characterized by remittent or irregular course, with sweating, flushing of the face, and vomiting, lethargy, stupor or even coma, scanty urine of high specific gravity, albuminuria, slight hematuria, cylindruria and leukocytosis with a high neutrophile count. This syndrome is not different from that of any other type of pyogenic infection whether it be pelvic thrombophlebitis, pneumococci

pneumonia or the like. The intoxication from the infection may become so pronounced as to result in toxic hepatitis with jaundice as well as other manifestations such as delirium from toxic encephalitis, toxic myocarditis or myocardial degeneration.

2. The *septic embolic pneumonia* should make one suspect this syndrome. It is fairly characteristic and of extreme importance in diagnosis (Fig. 111). The emboli usually lodge in the tissues of the general circulation such as the skin, spleen, kidneys, eyes, mesentery, brain, etc. and they should be sought in any patient with a clinical picture of sepsis or infection. The emboli manifest themselves in the skin by producing tender, inflamed nodules in the finger tips known as Osler's nodes, and small red petechial areas in the skin which blanch on pressure. The blanching indicates dilated engorged blood vessels in the area immediately surrounding the infected embolus. Areas of subcutaneous hemorrhage that is purpuric areas fail to blanch on pressure since the blood cannot be squeezed away. These areas are usually tender. They occur anywhere on the skin and for this reason the entire body should be carefully inspected. A single embolism is not as diagnostic as many. Emboli in of the eye can be found in the conjunctival area of the sclera and in the fundus of the eye on ophthalmoscopic examination. Emboli in the lumbar or r

definite hematuria

renal nephritis may result. Embolism of the spleen results in splenomegaly detected by palpation, percussion or roentgenography. The spleen is tender and the patient experiences spontaneous pain on the left

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distorted and therefore interfere with closure so that aortic regurgitation with

a murmur develops (consult section on murmur). It is theoretically conceivable that the vegetations will be so small as not to produce murmurs although this rarely occurs in practice. The student must be careful to differentiate murmurs due to organic disease of the valves themselves from those due to the toxic myocarditis such as might occur in any severe toxic state.

The *electrocardiographic* and *roentgenographic* studies should be included with the usual clinical survey but they in themselves add little in establishing the diagnosis of bacterial endocarditis. They are *necessary* studies for the cardiac internist and are important in the complete diagnosis, prognosis and therapeutic management but could be omitted as far as the acute lesion of endocarditis itself is concerned.

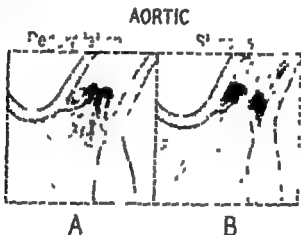


FIG. 133 Vegetations on a valve interfere with its closing and opening. This results in insufficiency with turbulence of flow and a characteristic murmur and stenosis with its accompanying murmur. The diagram shows aortic insufficiency A with a diastolic murmur and aortic stenosis B with a systolic murmur. Except with extremely small vegetations there always a murmur of some type if there are vegetations on the valvular leaflets or cusps.

4. The positive blood culture with the isolation and identification of the offending microorganism completes the clinical picture and establishes the diagnosis as far as is possible with present facilities.

The course of acute bacterial endocarditis in the past was fulminating and 100 per cent fatal. Penicillin the greatest recent therapeutic discovery in cardiology has changed this considerably. Early and adequate treatment has made the course relatively mild and the mortality rate now closely approaches zero. With the use of large doses of penicillin the mortality rate will be reduced further.

Treatment—The treatment of the patients is simple and of one sort only. Any other approach today is irrational. The measures should include

1. Good nursing care
2. Mental and physical rest in bed
3. Adequate fluids and nourishing foods

4 The organism isolated should be routinely tested for its sensitivity to the antibiotics commonly employed in clinical medicine. These organisms are usually sensitive to penicillin and if so it is the drug of choice since it is not likely to be associated with serious toxic side effects. The other antibiotics should be employed in proper doses only if indicated either alone or in conjunction with penicillin. Remember that antibiotics

lin fortified with crystalline penicillin should be administered parenterally in large doses at least 1 000 000 units intramuscularly every two hours day and night or larger doses if necessary. If the patient is encountered two weeks if any signs

injurious than none at all for they are known to result in the development of penicillin resistant mutant strains of the offending organism thus rendering large doses ineffective when the patient finally obtains proper medical care. Remember if penicillin or other antibiotics fail there is at present no alternative but death. Streptomycin plus penicillin is particularly valuable in certain infections. The sulfonamides are of little or no value and can actually create a therapeutic disease (a type of sulfonamide reaction) in an already severely and acutely ill patient.

5 Transfusions sedatives fixatives and other supportive measures are

Infective Endocarditis

The subacute type of

infective endocarditis is much more common than the acute type. It is reported to represent 1 to 2 per cent of all heart disease but it is obviously not this high if all forms of heart disease are included. About 7 to 10 per cent of patients with congenital heart disease and about 3 per cent of patients with rheumatic heart disease develop subacute bacterial endocarditis as a complication.

The clinical picture of subacute bacterial endocarditis is essentially the same as that of acute bacterial endocarditis except that the course is not as fulminating and the infecting microorganisms are usually different.

The etiologic factor in subacute bacterial endocarditis is *Streptococcus viridans* in 90 to 95 per cent of all instances. The gonococcus and influenza bacillus account for another 3 to 8 per cent. Many other organisms such as *Streptococcus fecalis* may also produce the disease.

The age sex race climate social status are essentially the same as for acute bacterial endocarditis the latter three factors being of little significance. The predisposing factors and portals of entry are the same as those described for acute bacterial endocarditis.

The pathologic changes are essentially the same as for acute bacterial endocarditis but in addition the lesions show evidence of chronicity. The infection may become localized at the openings of an arteriovenous aneurysm, congenital cardiac abnormalities and patent ductus arterii. When an artery is infected, *subacute bacterial endarteritis* results.

The incidence of valvular involvement is essentially as follows:

	Per cent
(a) Mitral and aortic	about 45
(b) Mitral	about 30
(c) Aortic	about 20
(d) Other valves or combinations	about 5

The clinical manifestations are about the same as described previously for acute bacterial endocarditis. The syndrome may be divided into the same four main diagnostic manifestations and should be considered in such terms.

Because of the duration of the disease before the advent of penicillin the clinical picture was colored by changes produced by the relatively chronic nature of the disease. Among the important ones are *cachexia*, *severe secondary anemia*, *clubbing of the fingers and toes* and *palmar and plantar erythema*. The other clinical manifestations are not different from those of the acute disease except in degree or severity.

In view of the dramatic results obtained with penicillin this complete clinical picture has become a clinical curiosity, being present only in those patients erroneously diagnosed or treated or in whom the offending organism is fundamentally resistant to all antibiotics. The course of the disease in the past terminated with gradual and almost certain death (97 to 100 per cent). With early diagnosis and proper penicillin or other antibiotic therapy the course should be abrupt and recovery almost 100 per cent. This is a remarkable advance in medicine. The treatment is the same as outlined for acute bacterial endocarditis.

Pericarditis

An inflammation of the pericardium is known as pericarditis. The pericardium may present inflammatory changes in the absence of demonstrable evidence of microorganisms locally. Good examples are pericarditis of uremia and rheumatic fever. Pericarditis regardless of the cause occurs in about 1 per cent of routine autopsies.

Pericarditis may be classified according to its pathologic findings, etiology, agent or clinical picture. The classification presented below is preferred, however.

1. Infectious

- (a) Septic (due to specific organism: pneumococcus, tubercle bacillus, etc.)
- (b) Toxic (due to toxin of specific organism, such as rheumatic fever, toxic influence, such as from visceral angiotides, metabolic disturbances, uremia, infarction, etc.)

2 Physical (traumatic etc)

3 Neoplastic

4 Idiopathic

This classification may have to be qualified in an individual instance to conform with more generally used clinical terms such as *fibrinous sero-fibrinous*, *purulent* or *hemorrhagic* in the case of *acute pericarditis* and *adhesive* (*concretio cordis*, *acretio cordis*) and *polyserositis* in chronic pericarditis.

It will become obvious to the student as he progresses with the discussion that it is often difficult in many instances to differentiate the acute state from the chronic one.

There is no single pathognomonic sign that will confirm a diagnosis of chronic pericarditis regardless of the type. In many instances particularly in the chronic adhesive or constrictive types the diagnosis is established by eliciting a syndrome. Whenever any one of the following is present the patient has an inflammation of the pericardium:

1 Definite pericardial friction rub

2 Paracentesis of the pericardial sac with withdrawal of clear fluid, pus or blood

3 Roentgenographic evidence of air or fluid level in pericardial sac

4 Certain electrocardiographic signs

The clinical syndromes which make a diagnosis possible when such pathognomonic observations have not been made will be presented in the following paragraphs. The clinician should obtain a pathognomonic sign in order to establish an irrefutable diagnosis. When possible the offending organism should be isolated and identified by bacteriologic methods. This permits an accurate diagnosis to be made, indicates the therapy and establishes the prognosis.

Clinical Aspects of Pericarditis—The etiologic incidence of pericarditis varies about 70 per cent being pyogenic, 3 per cent tuberculous and the remaining 27 per cent of various types and causes.

The latter type is more common in subtropical southern areas. The use of antibiotics has been introduced and is modifying the course of primary infections which cause pericarditis. The etiologic incidence should be revised periodically.

Acute pericarditis almost invariably begins with a fibrinous exudate which may persist for a short time, at least as fibrinous, before any fibrinous blood is purulent.

Acute purulent pericarditis or *pneumopericarditis*. It is confusing to classify pericarditis as such, however, because in many if not all forms of acute pericarditis exudates change from one form to another so rapidly or so subtly that a diagnosis is wrong or confused by the time the study has been completed. An acute staphylococcal invasion of the pericardium may occur for example at 10 A.M. one day as fibrinous pericarditis, become serofibrinous pericarditis thirty minutes later and by 2 P.M., it may be

The *pathologic changes* are essentially the same as for acute bacterial endocarditis but in addition the lesions show evidence of chronicity. The infection may become localized at the openings of an arteriovenous aneurysm, congenital cardiac abnormalities and patent ductus arteriosus. When an artery is infected *subacute bacterial endarteritis* results.

The *incidence of valvular involvement* is essentially as follows:

	<i>Per cent</i>
(a) Mitral and aortic	about 40
(b) Mitral	about 30
(c) Aortic	about 20
(d) Other valves or combinations	about 10

The *clinical manifestations* are about the same as described previously for acute bacterial endocarditis. The syndrome may be divided into the same four main diagnostic manifestations and should be considered in such terms.

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blood stream (hematogenous), by direct extension from surrounding mediastinal tissues by the lymphatics (lymphogenous) or by penetrating wounds.

is, for practical purposes always involved in the inflammatory process. This is particularly important from the electrocardiographic point of view.

A study of the pericardial fluid is important in diagnosis. For this reason it is necessary to determine if the fluid is a transudate (edema type of fluid) or an exudate (fluid of inflammation). The commonly observed characteristics employed in differentiating the two types of fluid are shown in Table 6.

It is obvious from the discussions to follow that the clinical manifestations are variable. They depend upon essentially two main factors:

- 1 The etiologic agent and underlying disease and
- 2 The nature of and especially the amount of the pericardial exudate present at that particular time.

1 The underlying disease which serves as the source of the pericarditis such as pneumococcal pneumonia, rheumatic fever and pulmonary tuberculosis are responsible for a clinical syndrome of their own. This underlying disease may be so severe and highly developed that the clinician is apt to overlook the complicating pericarditis.

TABLE 6—DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXUDATES AND TRANSUDATES

	Transudate	Exudate
1 Color	Serous pink yellow	Filthiness purulent hemorrhagic bloody or a combination of these
2 Transparency	Clear	Cloudy or cloudy
3 Specific gravity	Less than 1.010	Greater than 1.018
4 Chilling	Does not clot	Clots spontaneously
5 Protein content	Less than 2 percent	Greater than 3 percent
6 Sugar content	Same as blood	Less than blood
7 Cell content	Few (mesothelial and erythrocytes)	Many (type depends upon nature and degree of inflammation)
8 Bacteria	None	Usually present
9 Acromia (Rivalta test)	Absent	Present

Pericarditis is usually heralded by precordial pain due to the irritation of the surrounding pericardium pleura and diaphragm. The pain may be constant or intermittent. It is often sharp and lancinating at times being much worse on breathing. The pain is often referred to the abdomen. There may be precordial and segmental hyperesthesia, and pain on pressure or tenderness is often noted over the precordium. There is usually associated palpitation. The constitutional signs of infection appear if they do not already exist, or become worse if they were pre-

purulent pericarditis Such rapid diagnostic differentiation based on the exudate is often impossible. These anatomic and clinical variation are expected in invasive infections of this type. Therefore it is far better and less confusing simply to classify pericarditis according to the etiologic agent involved *e.g.* *acute staphylococcal pericarditis*.

Pericardial paracentesis will reveal the nature of the pericardial fluid. This is certainly important in the clinical management, but the character of the fluid has limited diagnostic value. There is a tendency for certain etiologic factors to produce particular types of pericardial exudates.

Fibrinous and Serofibrinous

- 1 Any infection of the pericardium
- 2 Polyserositis (Connotts disease)
- 3 Trauma
- 4 Myocardial infarction
- 5 Foreign bodies
- 6 Almost any factor which irritates the pericardium

Purulent

- 1 Pyogenic microorganisms (staphylococcus, pneumococcus, streptococcus, etc.) regardless of their mode of entrance

Hemorrhagic

- 1 Tuberculosis
- 2 Neoplasm (primary and secondary)
- 3 Trauma
- 4 Fulminating rheumatic fever
- 5 Rupture of heart or root of aorta (aneurysm)

Hydropneumocardium (edematous fluid in pericardial sac)

- 1 Congestive heart failure
- 2 Nephrosis
- 3 Any edematous generalized or localized in the cardiac area

Pneumopericardium (air in pericardium)

- 1 Penetrating wound from
 - (a) Exterior of body
 - (b) Lung
 - (c) Esophagus
- 2 Eroasive lesion from the lung or esophagus

Combinations such as hydropneumopericarditis, serohemorrhagic exudate, etc. may occur.

Acute pericarditis is found at any age; the majority of patients being between ten and forty years. There is a definite sex difference in incidence, the male sex being involved three times as frequently as the female.

The *pathologic manifestations* vary with the etiologic agent concerned. For a detailed discussion of these the student is advised to consult textbooks of pathology. The microorganisms reach the pericardium by way of the

blood stream (hematogenous) by direct extension from surrounding mediastinal tissues by the lymphatics (lymphogenous) or by penetrating wounds.

is for practical purposes always involved in the inflammatory process. This is particularly important from the electrocardiographic point of view.

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- 1 The etiologic agent and underlying disease; and
- 2 The nature of and especially the amount of the pericardial exudate present at that particular time.

1 The underlying disease which serves as the source of the pericarditis such as pneumococcal pneumonia, rheumatic fever, and pulmonary tuberculosis are responsible for a clinical syndrome of their own. This underlying disease may be so severe and highly developed that the clinician is apt to overlook the complicating pericarditis.

TABLE 6—DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXUDATES AND TRANSUDATES

	<i>Transudate</i>	<i>Exudate</i>
1 Color	Serous, pale yellow	Fibrinous, purulent, bloody, milky, chocolate, or greenish
2 Transparency	Clear	Cloudy or opaque
3 Specific gravity	Less than 1.015	Greater than 1.015
4 Clotting	Does not clot	Clots spontaneously
5 Protein content	Less than 2.5 percent	Greater than 3 percent
6 Sugar content	Same as blood	Less than blood
Cell content	Few (mesothelial and erythrocytes)	Many (type dependent upon nature and degree of inflammation)
8 Bacteria	None	Usually present
9 Acetonuria (Rivalta test)	Absent	Present

Pericarditis is usually heralded by precordial pain due to the irritation of the surrounding pericardium, pleura, and diaphragm. The pain may be constant or intermittent. It is often sharp and lancinating at times being made worse by breathing. The pain is often referred to the abdomen. There may be precordial and segmental hyperesthesia, and pain on pressure or tenderness is often noted over the precordium. There is usually associated palpitation. The constitutional signs of infection appear if they do not already exist or become worse if they were pre-

viously present. The severity of the signs of infection is dependent upon the offending agent and constitutional state of the host. The signs of infection are worse if the organism infecting the pericardium is staphylococcus or streptococcus than if it were the tubercle bacillus. These systemic symptoms and signs of infection such as headache, weakness, nausea, vomiting, fever, chills or chilly sensations, malaise, leukocytosis, increased rate of erythrocyte sedimentation, lethargy, delirium etc. have been discussed previously. The manifestations of infection of the pericardium *per se* may be lost among those already existing. At times when the pericardium becomes infected the new infection causes an exacerbation of the previously existing picture or a recrudescence of symptoms a cause for suspicion and reevaluation by the clinician for infection somewhere else which leads him to the pericardium.

Noninfectious disease states such as uremia will present in underlying toxic clinical syndrome which may be characteristic. The pericarditis is an incidental manifestation. The same is true of myocardial infarction or neoplastic disease of the pericardium.

2. The other group of manifestations is dependent upon the nature and quantity of pericardial exudate. For example the patient with fibrinous pericarditis may present a friction rub (see section on murmurs for description) with few other manifestations of cardiac origin due to the pericarditis *per se*. If the patient has any underlying cardiac diseases such as myocardial insufficiency or valvular disease these will manifest themselves. Pericarditis with the accumulation of a large quantity of fluid results in the syndrome of *cardiac tamponade*.

Pathology and Physiology. The clinical picture produced by cardiac tamponade is not difficult to understand if one is aware of the fundamental disturbance in hemodynamics. The same disturbance and essentially the same clinical picture follows *constrictive pericarditis (concretio cordis)*. Because of the accumulation of a large quantity of fluid in the pericardial sac the ventricles are unable to dilate or fill completely during diastole (Fig. 134). The intra-atrial pressure rises, the pressure in the great veins rises and a generalized and symmetric increase in venous pressure measurements reveals venous hypertension. Even though there is venous hypertension these patients are often free from edema for some time. Then for some unknown reason the picture of congestive heart failure develops with the cardinal symptoms and signs. Dyspnea is a complaint early in the picture. The rate with which the tamponade syndrome develops depends upon the rate with which pericardial fluid accumulates or constrictive pericarditis develops. The latter occurs at a slow rate although this may be true for the accumulation of fluid. At times however a pericardial effusion may occur quickly. The most rapid tamponade occurs with hemorrhage into the pericardial sac following trauma from the exterior (stab or gun shot wounds) or cardiac or aortic rupture.

In association with impairment of blood flow into the heart there is stasis of blood in the tissues with resultant increase in reduced circulating

hemoglobin. This is manifested in those vessels responsible for color of the skin and mucous membranes cyanosis results.

With development of severe tamponade *pulsus paradoxus* occurs. This is characterized by a *weakening and decrease in volume of the pulse on inspiration*. In some instances the pulsations of the radial artery may

be *greatly and perceptibly* with inspiration and *increasing* with expiration. The student should consult his textbooks of physiology for the generally accepted explanations. The arterial blood pressure behaves directly with

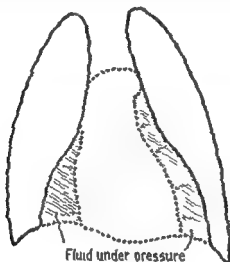


FIG. 134.—Diagram illustrating the manner in which extensive pericardial effusion interferes with diastolic filling of the heart and results in cardiac tamponade.

the pulse volume. *Pulsus paradoxus* may occur in clinical states other than cardiac tamponade. It is imperative to check the rule as a tamponade

is more characteristic than *pulsus paradoxus*.

Among the main clinical manifestations of pericardial effusion are the signs due to the *mass of fluid*. These are obvious and should be remembered.

- 1 Decrease in intensity of the heart sounds or the presence of "distant" heart sound.
- 2 Fullness of the precordial region.

- 3 Decrease in the excursions of the pulsations of cardiac silhouette on fluoroscopic or roentgenographic examination
- 4 " " " " " " " " water bottle (Fig. 1)
- 5 " " " " " " " "
- 6 Presence of Ewart's sign that is, evidence of consolidation of that portion of the lungs posterior to the heart (left infrascapular area). This is attributed to compression of the lungs locally by the large mass of fluid. There may be other mechanisms involved but none of them has been satisfactorily established.

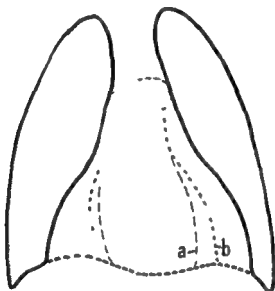


FIG. 135.—Diagram of the water bottle shape of the cardiac silhouette in the anteroposterior view. The normal heart silhouette is shown in outline, and the water bottle shape is shown in solid black. The water bottle shape indicates the enlargement of the heart with air and fluid in the pericardial space.

then making a teleoroentgenogram (see Fig 136)

Diagnosis The diagnosis of an abnormal amount of fluid in the pericardial sac is established only by withdrawal of the fluid by syringe and needle. Because there is often some question of the source of the fluid withdrawn (it could originate from the pleural space) air should be injected and roentgenographic studies should be made to demonstrate the air and fluid.

me makes one suspect fluid in the pericardium, the collection of the fluid with proper analysis is necessary for diagnosis and determination of the nature of the pericarditis and offending organism

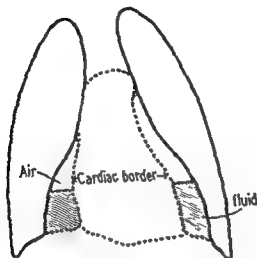


Fig. 136 — Illustration of the fluid level and air-spacer in the pericardial sac after partial paracentesis and installation of air. This procedure makes it possible to study the size and configuration of the heart and thickness of the pericardium.

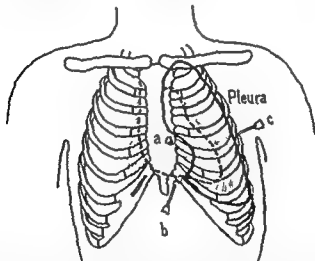


Fig. 137 — Three common sites of entrance into the pericardial sac for paracentesis. At point *a*, the entrance is extrapleural in the fourth or fifth intercostal space just to the left of the sternum. At point *b*, the entrance is in the costosternal angle and is extraperitoneal and extrapleural. At point *c*, the needle penetrates the pleural space and lungs, entrance being made in the left posterior axillary or midscapular line. The first seems to be the best approach under most circumstances.

With the healing of *acute pericarditis* especially if of long duration and associated with much inflammation *fibrous tissue develops with scar formation*. This is known as *chronic adhesive pericarditis* since the fibrous tissue produces adhesions between various adjoining structures. Obviously the amount of fibrous tissue and scar formation is variable. If it is diffusely distributed over the epicardial surface adhesions develop between the epicardium and pericardium. Fibrous tissue scars are prone to contract as they develop and age therefore the heart finds itself in an *ever-constricting fibrous tissue jacket* which behaves like a tightening jacket of steel (Fig. 138). This jacket interferes with diastolic filling of the ventricles

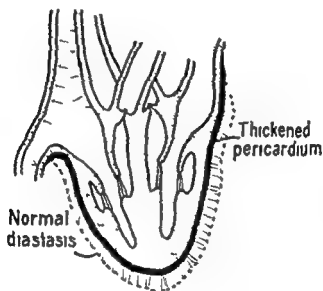


FIG. 138. Diagram of the manner in which the fibrous layer of tissue in chronic adhesive pericarditis encases the heart in an ever-constricting jacket of steel which results in varying degrees of tamponade.

and results in the *concretio cordis* syndrome of cardiac tamponade. It is essentially the same as the cardiac tamponade due to the accumulation of fluid in the pericardial sac. The main difference obviously is concerned with the cardiac size (Fig. 139) that is although the *abnormal physiologic clinical pattern may be the same the heart shadow is large with effusion and small with concretio cordis*. The heart sounds may be muffled in both and the pulsations of the heart (detected by palpation and roentgenography) are small in both.

At times fibrous adhesions form between the pericardium and the extra cardiac mediastinal structures resulting in what is called *mediastinopericardial adhesions*. These adhesions rarely extend to the thoracic wall so that cardiac movement with each cardiac systole results in a tugging of the intercostal spaces in the vicinity of the heart. This tugging of the intercostal spaces in the posterolateral region of the thorax is known as

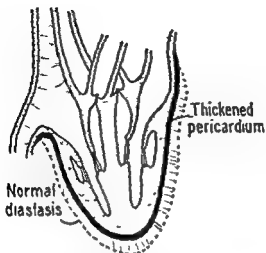


FIG. 139 —Illustration of the manner in which the thick "vest" of fibrous tissue in constrictive pericarditis produces interference with diastolic filling of the ventricle and resultant generalized and asymmetric venous hypertension

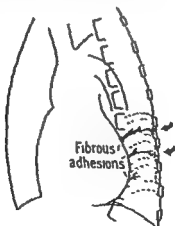


FIG. 140 —The adhesions indicated by the arrows are part of the constrictive process

Broadbent's sign (Fig. 140). At times the adhesions tend to form around the region of the diaphragm where the inferior vena cava and hepatic veins enter into the mediastinum. This results in impairment of venous flow through both veins but more particularly in the hepatic veins because of their angulation and less efficient venous return (Fig. 141). Impairment of the flow of blood through the hepatic veins produces venous stasis in the liver with hypertension in the hepatic sinusoids and portal system.

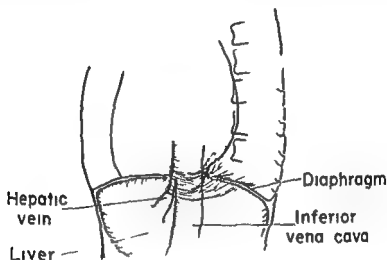


FIG. 141. A diagram showing a band of adhesion in chronic mediastinopericarditis which is constricting (1) the inferior vena cava and (2) hepatic veins the latter just before they enter the inferior vena cava. This results in an obstruction to the flow of blood from the liver and inferior vena cava. Portal hypertension follows with the development of Pick's syndrome (see Fig. 142). Obstruction to the hepatic veins is particularly great because of the acute angle at which they enter the inferior vena cava and therefore the ease with which it can be compressed and obstructed and the lack of muscular contractions, venous valves and so forth to aid venous return. The venocaval obstruction on the other hand is not so great. The greater obstruction to the hepatic veins results in ascites and hepatomegaly which are out of proportion to the degree of edema in the lower extremities.

This results in a picture like that of hepatic cirrhosis and is known as *mediastinopericarditis pseudocirrhosis of the liver* or *Pick's disease* (Fig. 142). The clinical picture is characterized by enlargement of the liver, ascites, distended veins of the abdominal wall with local venous hypertension, hemorrhoids and other signs of increased prehepatic collateral circulation.

These small white patches or scars are often referred to as milk spots or soldier's patches.

Patients with mediastinopericardial adhesions often have some of the largest hearts encountered in medical practice. The dilatation results in many types of functional murmurs which depend on the location and

degree of dilatation. One should be careful about the interpretation of these murmurs as signs of organic valvular disease.

In a discussion of this nature it is impossible to enter into a detailed discourse of the management of acute and chronic pericarditis. Only the main principles of therapy, therefore, will be summarized and outlined.

The prevention of pericarditis by adequate early and vigorous treatment of infections and disease states which are known to produce pericarditis will certainly be the main objective of all physicians. Once acute

...tion of a case

surgically when it is

with removal of small quantities of fluid and its replacement by air, should

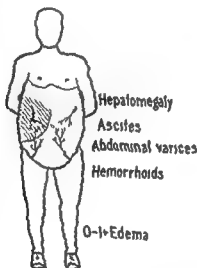


Fig. 142.—Diagram summarizing the essential features of Pericarditis due to mediastinopericardial adhesions.

be employed for cardiac tamponade due to the accumulation of a large volume of fluid. Small volumes of fluid should not be removed except for diagnostic purposes. Slab wounds with hemorrhage must be sutured

being removed only when necessary for reducing tamponade. Repeated unnecessary paracenteses will eventually result in secondary infection and additional difficulties. Medical management is the therapeutic procedure of choice. Streptomycin and para-aminosalicylic acid or the new iso-

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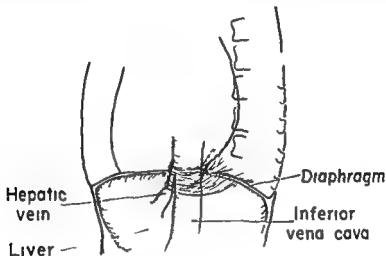


Fig. 141. A diagram showing a band of adhesion in chronic mediastinopericarditis which is constricting (1) the inferior vena cava and (2) hepatic veins just before they enter the inferior vena cava. This results in an obstruction to the flow of blood from the liver and inferior vena cava. Portal hypertension follows with the development of Pick's syndrome (see Fig. 142). Obstruction to the hepatic veins is particularly great because of the acute angle at which they enter the inferior vena cava and therefore the ease with which it can be compressed and obstructed and the lack of muscular contractions, venous valves and so forth to aid venous return. The venocaval obstruction on the other hand is not so great. The greater obstruction to the hepatic veins results in ascites and hepatomegaly which are out of proportion to the degree of edema in the lower extremities.

This results in a picture like that of hepatic cirrhosis and is known as *mediastinopericarditis pseudocirrhosis of the liver* or *Pick's disease* (Fig. 142). The clinical picture is characterized by enlargement of the liver, ascites, distended veins of the abdominal wall with local venous hypertension, hemorrhoids and other signs of increased portal hepatic collateral circulation. Edema of the legs and feet is not striking. This clinical picture in a patient with heart disease should cause the clinician to suspect Pick's disease.

Chronic pericarditis may be mild with only a small patch, as of scarring on the epicardium with and without adhesions. These small white patches or scars are often referred to as milk spots or soldier's patches.

Patients with mediastinopericardial adhesions often have some of the largest hearts encountered in medical practice. The dilatation results in many types of functional murmurs which depend on the location and

work in the presence of a lowered oxygen supply. Because of the anemia the oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood is reduced. The tissues must receive an adequate quantity of oxygen in order to maintain the metabolic processes. To meet these requirements in the presence of anemia the blood

the stroke volume and cardiac rate increase the systolic blood pressure rises the pulse pressure increases the rate of blood flow increases, and the cardiac output increases. This results in more cardiac work in the presence of an inadequate oxygen supply to the myocardium.

These physiologic changes do not become manifested until the hemoglobin level falls below 70 per cent of normal. Drastic changes do not levels the develops as does

the underlying anemia. Previous heart disease and debilitating states exaggerate the syndrome and increase the tendency for myocardial damage and failure.

The clinical manifestations in anemic heart disease are the same as those described previously for acute myocarditis except that there is no tenderness or soreness and pain over the precordium during rest. The heart is large there is palpitation dyspnea on exertion murmurs of any sort (even diastolic functional ones when the anemia is severe and of long duration) protodiastolic gallop rhythm congestive and anginal (angina pectoris) heart failure. The anginal pain is said to be due to the inadequate oxygen

is the clinical state responsible for the anemia if it is secondary anemia

The characteristic changes in the electrocardiogram are characteristic. They include repolarization expressed as T waves in disturbances in cardiac mechanism may occur. These changes though not characteristic are of diagnostic importance in that they indicate myocardial damage.

For some unknown reason the duration are apt to be long, namely a large

prevention of anemia follows the management of this disease is essentially as

1 Treatment - Treatment

(a) Remove the cause of the anemia
respond

nicotinic acid derivatives alone or in combination are the drugs of choice. The isonicotinic drugs appear to have considerable promise at this time with the development of other derivatives and more study they may become the drugs of preference. In many instances acute pericarditis is reversible if adequate vigorous treatment is instituted early. This is particularly true if appropriate antibiotic agents are used.

Pancarditis

The term pancarditis is employed to indicate inflammation of the pericardium, myocardium and endocardium simultaneously. This is a clinical term and has no special significance except for brevity in terminology. It is most often caused by acute rheumatic fever although under unusual circumstances acute or subacute bacterial endocarditis and lupus erythematosus disseminatus (Libman-Sacks syndrome) may be associated with pancarditis.

HEART DISEASE DUE TO ANEMIA

Anemia is a common clinical entity from the point of view of the world population. It is particularly prevalent in the subtropical and tropical regions of the earth where public health measures are poor. The fact that there are about 500,000,000 cases of malaria every year which produces a severe and chronic type of anemia emphasizes the high incidence of anemia. In addition severe anemia is encountered in chronic bacterial infections, chronic hemorrhage (from neoplastic states, menstrual disorders, etc.), malnutrition, chronic protozoal disease such as intestinal parasites, trachoma and filariasis, chronic degenerative states as nephritis and essential hypertension, and in many special types of primary anemias such as pernicious anemia, sickle cell anemia and the like. Anemia is an important problem even in the most highly developed portions of the earth where public health measures are the best, and the heart is one of the organs that is particularly influenced by this state. Furthermore the factors producing the anemia are often associated with toxic states which damage the myocardium and further aggravate the patient's condition.

The mechanism by which severe anemia injures the heart is not entirely clear. At least two main factors are important.

1. The anemia itself interferes with oxygen supply to the myocardium at a time when the heart has to perform more work. Any tissue which is

the purpose of irrigating the tissues and congestive and/or anginal failure supervenes. Death follows if adequate early therapy is not instituted.

2. A second and important influence on the heart follows the fact that the anemia results in increased demand on the heart so that it performs more

The management of this type of heart disease is not difficult as a rule. It is completely reversible when therapy is early and adequate since the nutritional disease is reversible. It is likely that subtle changes occur over the course of years from a diet that is only slightly inadequate. The disturbances are so mild that at any one time it is impossible to detect abnormalities but after many years there result demonstrable changes precipitated by some other factor. A good example of this is the present day contention that atherosclerosis is produced in the coronary arteries by an excessive intake of fats and lipids in the diet and an inadequate intake of the lipotropic substances (inositol, choline, methionine). Such may be the case but it remains to be proved. Therefore it is essential to ensure a proper diet in all patients whether they consult their physician concerning their heart or for some other reason.

Beriberi Heart Disease

Of the nutritional disturbances an inadequate intake of thiamine chloride (vitamin B₁) complex. It is an important deficiency disease. It is caused by poverty and inadequate food production and distribution are usually responsible for beriberi throughout the world. Beriberi is not a common disease in the United States being encountered principally in food cranks, drug addicts, alcoholics, neglected semi people and patients with chronic alcoholism.

It is assumed that there has ever been a deficiency of only thiamine in man. Every patient has suffered from a deficiency of many factors of which thiamine inadequacy was the precipitating one. Such deficiencies follow any inadequate intake because of a primary lack of food or because of chronic alcoholism in which the thiamine is destroyed.

The pathologic alterations in the heart are not characteristic. There is diffusely distributed myocardial degeneration with various degrees of interstitial fibrosis. The evidence of this is the presence of a large, dilated, and flaccid heart.

The myocardium

Before the

- (b) Specific measures directed at the anemia itself such as the use of liver extract in pernicious anemia
 - (c) Transfusions if the anemia is severe. Small transfusion (not exceeding 300 cc at a time) should be administered at frequent intervals (every six to twenty four hours) instead of single large transfusions in order to avoid acute left ventricular failure and other serious cardiovascular disturbances
- 2 The usual management of heart disease such as rest and diet, wholesome food, treatment of the congestive heart failure. Digitalis is not always effective although it has not been shown to produce additional myocardial damage when given in proper doses

The heart disease is completely *reversible* if adequate treatment is instituted early and the anemia is corrected

HEART DISEASE ASSOCIATED WITH NUTRITIONAL DISEASE STATES

Nutritional deficiencies are common throughout the world. This is particularly true in the areas where the economic and social status is low. In the more highly developed and richer areas these deficiencies are less prevalent but are still common enough to be of importance. This is true to some extent in this country. In many instances the malnutrition may not be sufficiently great to produce serious heart disease in itself but it must not be forgotten that mild malnutrition will impair myocardial function. The malnutrition in most instances is not a deficiency in a single factor but a *chronic dietary deficiency* involving an inadequate supply of most or all dietary substances including vitamins, calories, essential foodstuffs (carbohydrates, proteins, fats), minerals, etc. These chronic dietary deficiencies in a subtle way impair cardiac function to a mild degree. Vitamin B₁ (thiamine) deficiency with severe cardiac damage (beriberi) is rare in the United States but relatively common throughout China, India, the Malay States and other highly populated areas of the world where the economic level is low. Cardiac damage is seen in pellagra and other deficiency diseases. Since all of these are multiple deficiencies in many it is difficult to evaluate the role played by the lack of any single substance.

The cardiac damage sustained in malnutritional states like that in anemia is limited to the myocardium. The *clinical picture* is essentially the same as that described for heart disease in anemia. There is cardiac enlargement, tachycardia, functional murmurs of many sorts, protodiastolic gallop rhythm and finally congestive heart failure. In most if not all of the chronic nutritional diseases there is nutritional anemia as a contributing factor in the heart disease. In fact it is usually impossible to evaluate the relative roles of the two factors for example the malnutrition or the deficiency state and the associated anemia.

The management of this type of heart disease is not difficult as a rule. It is *completely reversible* when therapy is early and adequate since the nutritional disease is reversible. It is likely that subtle changes occur over the course of years from a diet that is only slightly inadequate. The disturbances are so mild that at any one time it is impossible to detect abnormalities but after many years there result demonstrable changes precipitated by some other factor. A good example of this is the present day contention that atherosclerosis is produced in the coronary arteries by an excessive intake of fats and lipids in the diet and an inadequate intake of the lipotropic substances (inositol, choline, methionine). Such may be the case, but it remains to be proved. Therefore, it is essential to ensure a proper diet in all patients whether they consult their physician concerning their heart or for some other reason.

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Every patient has suffered from a deficiency of many factors of which thiamine inadequacy was the precipitating one. Such deficiencies follow any inadequate intake because of a primary lack of food or because of chronic alcoholism in which the patient is unable to absorb thiamine.

The pathologic alterations in the heart are not characteristic. The heart is diffusely enlarged because of dilatation and hypertrophy and there are various degrees and stages of degeneration of the myocardium. The nerves to the heart often show evidences of degeneration. There is also evidence of interstitial edema and slight fibrosis of the myocardium.

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well illness Of these 99.8 per cent had some cardiovascular manifestations.

The clinical manifestations of beriberi heart disease are altered to a variable degree by the underlying manifestations of nutritive deficiency.

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manifestations of beriberi are

Peripheral neuritis	Optic neuritis
Psychosis and other mental alterations	Dysphagia
Glossitis	Horseness
Constipation or diarrhea	Aphonia
Dermatitis	Koilonychia
Anemia	Purpura
Hypoproteinemias	Weakness and fatigability etc

The cardiovascular manifestations are

Symptoms	Signs
Tachycardia and palpitation	Fachycardia
Fatigability and weakness	Imbrycardia
Dyspnea on exertion	Systolic murmurs
Cough	Diastolic murmurs when the disease is severe
Idem (cardiac type)	Prominent cardiac pulsations
Orthopnea	Pulmonary rales
Paroxysmal dyspnea	Gallop rhythm
	Venous hypertension
	Enlarged heart
	Warm extremities
	Pistol shot sounds in the large arteries
	Cyanosis
	Syncope
	High pulse pressure
	Circulatory collapse etc

These manifestations are obviously those of myocarditis congestive heart failure high pulse pressure and peripheral circulatory failure which

characteristic. They are of the myocardial degeneration and include lowering and inversion of the *T* wave prolonged *Q-T* interval low voltage of the *QRS* complex sinus tachycardia disturbances in cardiac mechanism etc

The changes in hemodynamics other than those due to congestive heart failure are essentially the same as those described for heart disease in

anemia In fact the associated anemia may be largely responsible for the changes. Some of these are

- 1 Normal or increased volume and linear velocity of blood flow and increased cardiac output
- 2 Low arteriovenous oxygen difference
- 3 Full and bounding pulse, flushed skin, high pulse pressure and general signs of arteriolar dilatation
- 4 Signs of purely right ventricular congestive heart failure
- 5 Signs of peripheral circulatory collapse and shock

There are certain *chemical changes* in the blood which are related to the vitamin deficiency itself and not necessarily to the cardiac disease. These include

- 1 Decreased plasma proteins and specific gravity
- 2 Normal or moderate increase in nonprotein nitrogen
- 3 Moderate elevation of fasting blood sugar
- 4 Increased bisulphate binding substances
- 5 Tendency to ketosis and glycosuria

The diagnosis is usually not difficult. It may be confused with obscure types of myocarditis and vasomotor disturbances.

Treatment—The treatment is obvious. Thiamine chloride should be administered in daily doses of 50 to 120 mg orally. If necessary, 50 mg should be given intravenously. Bed rest should be obligatory. The diet must be adequate and especially high in vitamins and calories. Transfusions, sedatives and other supportive measures must be employed. The usual measures employed for congestive heart failure are indicated only when failure is present. *Digitalis* may be tried but does not seem to be especially effective in beriberi heart disease. It is not known if digitalis will further damage the myocardium.

CARDIAC DYSFUNCTION PRODUCED BY PSYCHONEUROSES

There may be a great deal of discussion as to whether or not the disturbances in cardiac function produced by *psychoneurosis* or *cardiac neurosis* should be considered as *heart disease*. Any conclusion reached by such discussion would remain a matter of opinion. From the practical clinical standpoint the person who is concerned about his heart or who suffers from heart trouble because of a psychoneurosis is a medical, social, and economic problem. He is unhappy and is not as efficient as the man who is free from such difficulties. It is true that in most instances his heart can perform a normal amount of work but it is also true that the individual is *unable or unwilling* to permit his heart to work fully. In some instances the patient becomes an invalid and is a slave to his heart beat. Finally these people *confront* their physician with their complaints, *shop* for medical assistance and become the victim of the charlatan. Their home life and business associations are often seriously disturbed. Furthermore the cardiac neuroses are extremely common and constitute an important clinical problem which is often badly managed.

They are *reversible* in many instances. The physician has much to offer these people. Their cardiac status is as amenable to treatment as the underlying psychoneurosis. On the basis of these facts the cardiac neuroses are considered among the most common types of cardiac dysfunction even though they are not organic in nature.

The cardiac neuroses to be discussed are

1. Simple paroxysmal tachycardia
2. Neurocirculatory asthenia
3. Gower's syndrome (cardiac component of the vasovagal syndrome)

The relationship of emotion and cardiovascular phenomena is well known. Tachycardia, sighing respiration, giddiness, syncopal episodes, palpitation, precordial and substernal pain are among the many experiences of a patient with anxiety states. It is obvious that any classification of the cardiac neuroses is inadequate. Since the foregoing three types of cardiac neuroses occur in variable degrees, almost all patients with cardiac neurosis can be placed in one of these categories. Many people who suffer from psychoneuroses have such a mild cardiac neurosis that no attempt is made to render a cardiac diagnosis. Such a mild form of cardiac neurosis has potentialities, however, of becoming fully developed into a serious problem.

Simple Tachycardia. A reasonable number of people under the influence of anxiety states have episodes of tachycardia which frighten them considerably. The normal person may experience these episodes without too much alarm and without development of an exaggerated state of anxiety. The individual who already suffers from anxiety neurosis, however, has a fertile psychic background for engendering a state of great fear of heart disease and sudden death. He then lives in dreaded anticipation of a cardiac death. Newspaper articles and reports of sudden cardiac deaths, the recollection of relatives and friends who had cardiac disease and tachycardia and died of heart disease add fuel to the fire of the cardiac neurosis. He becomes so conscious of his heart that he is forever checking it by palpating his radial artery and precordium, anticipating trouble. A premature beat or sinus tachycardia in response to an emotional experience, a normal cardiac reaction, produces considerable concern and fear about his heart. This fear results in more tachycardia and more fear. Soon a typical fear syndrome follows with pallor, sweating, weakness and near collapse. This is often superimposed on a syndrome of hyperventilation. The patient soon finds himself helpless and dependent on his immediate attendants for assistance and psychic support. He loses confidence in his health, his heart and himself and expects death at any moment. A capable and understanding doctor can step in and take control only if he can quickly upbraid the situation, administer the proper advice and suggest therapeutic and psychiatric measures.

The attacks of tachycardia are usually (1) paroxysms of sinus tachycardia, (2) paroxysmal tachycardia, (3) auricular flutter or (4) auricular fibrillation. *Caffeine beverages and tobacco* are likely to increase the frequency, severity and duration of the attacks of tachycardia.

These episodes of tachycardia occur between the ages of twenty-one and seventy-six years the average age being fifty. They are found in both sexes and in all races. There is a tendency for the patients to suffer with stammering, colonic dysfunction, pyrosis, hyperventilation, migraine, aero-

Heart, Effort Syndrome, Irritable

The best of the foregoing terms, is a symptom complex which is characterized by fatigue, exhaustion, palpitation, dyspnea (often only sighing respiration), vertigo, sweating, weakness, precordial pain or discomfort, headache, tachycardia and anxiety neurosis. The syndrome is often precipitated by severe infections, emotional excitement, physical or psychic strain.

This syndrome always occurs in people who are hypersensitive and suffer with a psychoneurosis (usually anxiety neurosis). It is most likely to manifest itself or become fully developed during periods of psychic difficulties or any period

In fact, De Coster first

due to its great being present in about 10 per cent of civilians and reaching much higher levels during war time. The age varies between twenty and forty years. The sex incidence is unequal about 60 per cent of the cases. The importance in that case incidence. Factors

petitive business and warlike mental financial and other constant worries bring on the syndrome. Tobacco, alcohol, caffeine, beverages, infections, etc. may be precipitating factors.

There are no known pathologic changes.

The clinical manifestations are variable. Palpitation, precordial pain or distress, is a tendency to fatigue, nervousness, giddiness, peripheral circulatory collapse (pallor and cold clammy hands), sighing respiration and instability of the blood pressure and heart rate are among the many complaints.

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Neurocirculatory Asthenia (Soldier's Heart, Effort Syndrome, Irritable Heart)—Neurocirculatory asthenia, the best of the foregoing terms is a symptom complex which is characterized by fatigue, exhaustion, palpitation, dyspnea (often only sighing respiration), vertigo, sweating, weakness, precordial pain or discomfort, headache, tachycardia and anxiety neurosis. The syndrome is often precipitated by severe infections, emotional excitement, physical or psychic strain.

This syndrome always occurs in people who are hypersensitive and suffer with a psychoneurosis (usually anxiety neurosis). It is most likely to manifest itself or become fully developed during periods of psychic stress such as during wars, domestic or financial difficulties or any period requiring an important decision for the individual. In fact, De Costa first described the syndrome during the Civil War.

Incidence—The incidence is said to be great, being present in about 10 per cent of civilians and reaching much higher levels during war time. The age varies between twenty and forty years. The sex incidence is unequal, about 60 per cent of the cases.

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petitive business and enterprise, marital, financial and other constant worries bring on the syndrome. Tobacco, alcohol, caffeine, beverages, infections, etc. may be precipitating factors.

There are no known pathologic changes.

The clinical manifestations are variable. Palpitation, precordial pain or aching and dyspnea are the most common. There is a tendency for exhaustion to fatigue, faintness, syncope, vertigo, giddiness, peripheral circulatory disturbances (numbness, coldness, tingling, redness, heat, etc.), sighing respiration and instability of the blood pressure.

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or these are often welcomed as an escape mechanism from their psychic difficulties. Such people usually refuse to admit their illness and inadequacy.

evidence in favor of organic disease and against mental disease. For this reason some patients cherish their cardiovascular disturbances thereby increasing difficulties in therapy.

The physical and laboratory examinations fail to show any abnormalities. Results of electrocardiographic roentgenographic and metabolic studies are normal. There is a high incidence of a sharply localized area of tenderness over a rib or portion of the sternum in the precordial region. Pressure over this area elicits pain which is identical with the spontaneous pain previously experienced by the patient. The sign is of considerable diagnostic value not only in support of the cardiac anxiety neurosis but also in excluding organic disease.

The dyspnea is more subjective than objective. It is a pathognomonic sign of psychoneurosis. This is as interpreted by the patient is the dyspnea encountered in congestive heart failure.

The four cardinal symptoms of neurocirculatory asthenia are

1. Palpitation
2. Respiratory discomfort
3. Precordial pains or aches
4. Exhaustion

The palpitation (consciousness of the heart beat) is so highly developed at times that these patients are almost constantly cognizant of their heart beating. Such a person will observe his heart beat for fear it will suddenly stop and cause his death. He is unable to sleep on his left side when he is lying in bed the squeaking sounds that the cardiac pulsations produce in the bedsprings frighten him and excite attention. He notices with concern his abdominal wall vibrating his ears throbbing and his precordium and overlying clothes pulsating with each cardiac ejection. These pulsatile phenomena alone may be responsible for almost a state of panic from fear.

The dyspnea and precordial pain or ache have been discussed earlier in this monograph.

The exhaustion and fatigue from which the cardiac patients suffer are of considerable importance to them. Because of it they have little interest in work or play. Any participation in mental or physical activity is brought about only with effort. They must force themselves to work and when work is undertaken extreme fatigue occurs quickly.

There are of course varying degrees of any disease including neurocirculatory asthenia. The well developed syndrome is not difficult to recognize. On the other hand only the astute and patient physician who studies his patients carefully and evaluates the history well will succeed in recognizing mild and early forms of the syndrome. Early diagnosis is essential for successful therapy.

Vasovagal Attacks (Gower's Syndrome) — The incidence and background for Gower's syndrome are essentially the same as that described for neurocirculatory asthenia but this syndrome is not as frequently encountered as the latter. Most of these attacks are ignored or simply diagnosed as anxiety attacks, heart attacks, vertigo or some such vague entity.

The syndrome has a definite mechanism which can become highly developed and incapacitate the patient. It therefore deserves serious consideration. Although it is not as common as neurocirculatory asthenia, it may become more severe. There is no reliable *pathologic pattern*.

The clinical picture is fairly characteristic. In brief, the symptom complex consists of

- 1 Intense discomfort and physical prostration persisting for hours or days
- 2 The appearance of being *in extremis*
 - 1 Similarity to coronary occlusion and angina pectoris
- 4 A syndrome from which the term *vasovagal* originates, consisting of
 - (a) Facial pallor
 - (b) Pale cold and sweaty extremities
 - (c) Sublingual cyanosis
 - (d) Weakness
 - (e) Glassy or glazed appearance to the eye
- 5 Contracted and almost pulseless radial arteries
- 6 Sense of thoracic constriction, discomfort and actual pain in the sub-sternal and precardial regions and left arm and neck
- 7 Severe malaise
- 8 Helpless immobility
- 9 Leadens feeling in the arms
- 10 Tingling in the arms and trunk
- 11 Tetany (rarely)
- 12 Coldness and chill
- 13 Loss of consciousness (rarely)
- 14 Objective observations such as
 - (a) Pallor
 - (b) Coldness of the body surface
 - (c) Extreme retardation or acceleration of the pulse
 - (d) Shallow or rapid breathing which may produce the *hunger-*

(1)

Because it frequently be-

comes the result of a violent vagal stimulation with severe vascular reactions.

The background of anxiety neurosis, mental conflicts, infections, tobacco, alcohol, chronic illness, poor environmental conditions, etc.,

is sent to

various

circles

Management of the Cardiac Neuroses

The management of the cardiac neuroses is usually not difficult if the physician is aware of the psychoneurotic background and environmental difficulties underlying it. The treatment is essentially the same for all

evidence in favor of organic disease and against mental disease. For the reason some patients cherish their cardiovascular disturbances thereby increasing difficulties in therapy.

The *physical and laboratory examinations* fail to show any abnormalities. Results of *electrocardiographic roentgenographic* and *metabolic* studies are normal. There is a high incidence of a *sharply localized area of tenderness* over a rib or portion of the sternum in the precordial region. Pressure over this area elicits pain which is identical with the spontaneous pain previously experienced by the patient. The sign is of considerable diagnostic value not only in support of the diagnosis of neurocirculatory asthenia and anxiety neurosis but also in exclusion of serious coronary disease.

The *dyspnea* is more subjective than objective. It is usually *sighing respiration* a pathognomonic sign of psychoneurosis. This is as incapacitating to the patient as the dyspnea encountered in congestive heart failure.

The four cardinal symptoms of neurocirculatory asthenia are

1. Palpitation
2. Respiratory discomfort
3. Precordial pains or aches
4. Exhaustion

The *palpitation* (consciousness of the heart beat) is so highly developed at times that these patients are almost constantly cognizant of their heart beating. Such a person will observe his heart beat for fear it will suddenly stop and cause his death. He is unable to sleep on his left side when he is lying in bed the squeaking sounds that the cardiac pulsations produce in the bedsprings frighten him and excite attention. He notices with concern his abdominal wall vibrating his ears throbbing and his precordium and overlying clothes pulsating with each cardiac ejection. These pulsatile phenomena alone may be responsible for almost a state of panic from fear.

The *dyspnea* and precordial pain or ache have been discussed earlier in this monograph.

The *exhaustion* and fatigue from which these patients suffer are of considerable importance to them. Because of it they have little interest in work or play. Any participation in mental or physical activity is brought about only with effort. They must force themselves to work and when work is undertaken extreme fatigue occurs quickly.

There are of course varying degrees of any disease including neurocirculatory asthenia. The well developed syndrome is not difficult to recognize. On the other hand only the astute and patient physician who studies his patients carefully and evaluates the history well will succeed in recognizing mild and early forms of the syndrome. Early diagnosis is essential for successful therapy.

Vasovagal Attacks (Gower's Syndrome) The incidence and background for Gower's syndrome are essentially the same as that described for neurocirculatory asthenia but this syndrome is not as frequently encountered as the latter. Most of these attacks are ignored or simply diagnosed as anxiety attacks, heart attacks, vertigo or some such vague entity.

When it is realized that there are at any one time 15 million or more people in the United States alone who suffer from a form of cardiac neurosis it is easy to realize the importance of the syndromes clinically. Although these people are definitely sick the disease is clinically reversible with adequate and careful management.

HEART DISEASE PRODUCED BY THE AGING PROCESS (SO CALLED ARTERIOSCLEROTIC HEART DISEASE)

This and the next two etiologic types of heart disease are usually considered the six common types of heart disease. They are the ones which command most attention by clinicians as well as in the textbooks of medi-

consider the arteriosclerotic changes in the coronary arteries alone responsible for the cardiac disease. This attitude exists because it is relatively simple to demonstrate vascular changes histologically and to theorize mechanistic phenomena to explain the disease. Surely it is possible to exceed existing data but many subtle physical and chemical phenomena must occur in the cardiac parenchyma independently of the circulatory changes resulting from the coronary sclerosis. Although the likelihood of other phenomena must be kept in mind it is necessary for want of data that this discussion be limited to the incomplete and inadequate conventional concepts of impaired coronary circulation. The more general term *Heart Disease of the Aging Process* is employed here to avoid too definite a commitment to the idea that the cardiac disease is the result of arteriosclerosis. The exceedingly important process of arteriosclerosis is obviously included.

The etiology of the aging process is unknown. It is inevitable occurring relatively early in some people and rather late in others. There seem to be genetic factors concerned with the rate, degree and quality of aging. The environment in regard to such factors as climate, infections, diet, psychic and physical trauma, rest and the like plays an important role. This aging process produces demonstrable histologic changes within the parenchyma and the coronary vessels usually as atherosclerosis in the coronary arteries.

compensating and
coultateral adjustments to take place where rapid processes may occur
quickly as to result in massive death of the myocardium.

The age of onset
forty year
fact it is a
changes in the heart
increases with age

such cases, and for practical clinical purposes they are *reversible*. Many of these patients who have been slaves to their illness become extremely grateful, for they generally receive little serious consideration from physicians and are usually poorly managed. It should be realized that nothing can be offered them by drugs alone or a pat on the back. In many instances the syndrome follows or is aggravated by a busy physician's casual remark about a leaky valve, a weak heart or a murmur. Such terms must never be employed carelessly in their presence. Most of these patients are intelligent and *all of them are sick*. They are just as sick from any point of view (except life and death) as the patient with coronary occlusion and they should be treated with this in mind.

There are essentially two approaches to the treatment of the cardiac neuroses.

- 1 The management of the psychoneurosis and environmental difficulties
- 2 A thorough medical and cardiovascular survey to detect and rectify any physical disturbances. It is important to reassure the patient that you are certain of his health because *you have really investigated it*. He knows that a glance at the throat or a thump on the chest does not constitute a thorough investigation or grounds for any dogmatic statement that your illness is not organic but functional. The physician must first convince his patient that he has accumulated sufficient reliable data to render a definite statement concerning his health. Such an examination requires time, effort and usually expenditure of much money, but this is necessary.

The management of the psychoneurosis usually in anxiety neurosis is absolutely necessary for success in treatment. This cannot be accomplished by drugs or even aided much by them but rather requires many hours of careful questioning and discussion. The average physician should be qualified to handle the average patient. Every good physician is a good psychiatrist. A detailed discussion of a proper psychologic approach to such a problem has no place here. In most instances the management is obvious but requires adequate personality and intelligence on the part of the physician. It is a mistake to begin to unravel the patient's conflicts and to reveal them to him without following through with a satisfactory solution. As long as the problems remain anxiety will remain. As soon as his problems have been solved they cease to exist as problems in his mind and therefore he cannot be anxious about them. Most patients are dramatically relieved of their cardiac neurosis when the anxiety neurosis is relieved. It is well to reiterate that drugs should rarely be used. Occasionally sedatives may be prescribed or a drug may be employed for the tachycardia if it becomes annoying, frequent or severe. Foci of infections should obviously be removed. There should be no indiscriminate removal of teeth and tonsils. Mental and physical rest, occupational therapy, frequent vacations, good diet and hygiene should be emphasized. The patient should be given a sense of self-confidence, even overconfidence if necessary.

A detailed description of all possible isolated lesions that might follow the aging process and coronary artery sclerosis would not be possible here. It is obvious that the pathologic changes and resultant disturbance in physiology would vary with the degree and location of the disease process. For example, if the superior perforating branch of the posterior descending coronary artery becomes moderately obstructed, the atrioventricular node would be deprived of some of its blood supply and its function would be impaired. This would result probably in slight prolongation of the P-R

TABLE 7—INCIDENCE OF CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE

	Percent
Age incidence of clinical coronary heart disease	
Below 40 years of age	Less than 0.5
40 to 50 years of age	0.6
50 to 60 years of age	21.0
60 to 70 years of age	34.0
Over 70 years of age	27.0
Age incidence of angina pectoris	
30 years of age and under	1
31 to 40 years of age	1
41 to 50 years of age	21
51 to 60 years of age	41
61 to 70 years of age	26
71 to 80 years of age	7
Over 80 years of age	0
Age incidence of myocardial infarction due to coronary thrombosis	
Below 30 years of age	1
30 to 40 years of age	1
40 to 50 years of age	17
50 to 60 years of age	36
60 to 70 years of age	31
70 to 80 years of age	10
Over 80 years of age	1

TABLE 8—LOCATION OF INFARCTS IN THE LEFT VENTRICLE

	Percent
Anterior portion and apex	41
Medial portion	13
Posterior basal portion	38
Subendocardial (3 ft. zone)	5

TABLE 9—INCIDENCE OF OCCLUSION OF THE CORONARY ARTERIES

	Percent
Anterior descending branch of left coronary	53
Circumflex branch of left coronary	21
Right coronary	26

coronary heart disease are beyond sixty years of age about 75 per cent of patients with angina pectoris are beyond fifty years of age and about 80 per cent of those with myocardial infarction are beyond fifty years of age (Table 7). However it must be remembered that patients in the third and fourth decade of life may also present these types of heart disease.

The incidence is about the same for both sexes. Men tend to have more evidence of clinical coronary disease than women the ratio being about 2 or 3 to 1. Robust masculine and plethoric persons are more prone to coronary disease.

Race, temperament, social activity, social status and economic status have little influence on the incidence. The professional and business groups are said to be prone to coronary disease.

Alcohol, coffee and poor diet appear to increase the rate of aging but this has not been proved to be significant in man. At the present time a diet high in fats is said to predispose to atherosclerosis. Cholesterol is considered to increase this tendency. However this has never been established for man. Furthermore man can produce fat from carbohydrates in any way.

Pathologic changes that occur in the aging process will not be discussed here nor even atherosclerosis either in general or in the heart and coronaries in particular. Changes occur within the intima and the muscle fibers of the coronary arteries and the surrounding structures. The atherosclerotic changes in these arteries result in an insufficient supply of blood to the myocardium. This in turn produces degenerative changes in the myocardium manifested by hypertrophy, cloudy swelling and hydropic degeneration, fragmentation of the fibers and accumulation of fibrous tissue in the interstitial spaces. All vessels show signs of degeneration. The work of the heart continues however even though its blood supply is being reduced insidiously. This results in relative insufficiency as the lumina of the coronary trunks and their branches become slowly reduced in size. However some collateral circulation develops through the Thebesian and arterioluminal vessels. At times a coronary vessel may be rather quickly and completely occluded by thrombosis before collateral circulation develops. This results in the death of a mass of muscle or *infarction* of the myocardium with the characteristic pathologic picture of infarction. The incidence of involvement of various portions of the left ventricle is shown in Table 8.

The reasons or mechanisms for the high incidence of thrombosis of the coronary arteries are unknown. This is also true for the frequency of distribution among the different coronary arteries and their branches (Table 9). With infarction and weakening this segment of dead muscle fails to contract and is ballooned out by the high intraventricular pressure resulting in the formation of an *aneurysm* of the ventricle. This weakened area is friable and made especially weak by the proteolytic and other enzymes released locally by the dead cells and inflammatory cells. The area sometimes is so weak that a *rupture of the heart* and hemorrhage into the pericardial sac with tamponade occurs.

It is well to point out at this time that any disease associated with impairment of coronary blood flow such as thromboangitis obliterans, scleroderma or periarthritis nodosa produces clinical changes similar to those described later for arteriosclerosis of these vessels.

The clinical manifestations vary considerably. They are usually those of

- 1 Impaired coronary circulation
- 2 Myocardial insufficiency (discussed at end of Chapter)

Impaired Coronary Circulation

Impairment of coronary artery blood flow produces (a) myocardial infarction and/or (b) angina pectoris.

(a) **Myocardial Infarction**—Myocardial infarction is characterized by

1 *Sudden severe pain* in the substernal precordial and epigastric regions. The pain is squeezing and vise like in character and extremely severe or almost unbearable. The pain is referred to the left shoulder, left side of the neck, left arm along the ulnar side and it may be referred to any part of the upper and even the lower abdomen and extremities when it is severe. It is not relieved by rest or nitrites and only partially by morphine. It lasts over fifteen minutes and usually several hours gradually lessening in intensity. In only about 60 per cent of the instances is the pain typical in location, duration, intensity or quality. It may even be absent.

2 *Diaphoresis*

This is

sweating

3

ventricular congestive failure

develops rapidly

palor cold

or from left

4 *Palpitation* is a common manifestation which is annoying to the patient. It may be aggravated by many types of cardiac irregularities of which premature beats, auricular fibrillation and ectopic beats are the most common.

5 *Peter leukocytosis* and an increase in the rate of erythrocyte sedimentation occur within twelve to twenty hours after onset.

6 *Leukopenia* and a decrease in the rate of erythrocyte sedimentation occurs within twenty-four to thirty-six hours after onset. The leukopenia usually returns to normal in about forty-eight to ninety-six hours or more. The erythrocyte sedimentation rate is usually the last of these to return to normal. The magnitude of these reactions is essentially directly proportional to the size of the infarct.

7 *A friction rub* of the pericardium may occur when the infarction is fairly large and enough fibrinous pericarditis is present. This may be

interval. If this vessel were completely occluded the A node would become infarcted and complete heart block would result (Fig. 143). Essentially the same state of affairs could produce bundle branch block, S-I nodal block, etc. For this reason the aging process may manifest itself in many ways too numerous to mention.

The aging process may result in deposition of calcium and fibrous tissue in valves and in the regions of the attachment of valves resulting in *calcular heart disease*. The valves most often involved are the aortic and mitral rarely are the other two affected. It is believed by many observers that



FIG. 143 — Diagram illustrating the mechanism by which arteriosclerotic occlusion of the superior performing branch of the posterior coronary artery A produces interference with the nutrition of the A-I node B with resultant complete A-I block (lower part of figure). The small black blocks indicate auricular activity; the lower ones are sounds; the black auricular

calcification occurs only in valves previously diseased, as by rheumatic fever. Calcification of the aortic and mitral valves results in aortic stenosis and insufficiency; the stenosis being most significant in the aortic valve and the insufficiency most important in the mitral. These valvular defects interfere with hemodynamics to an extent sufficient to increase the work of the heart. When there is calcification of the valves, it is almost certain that there are atheromatous changes in the coronary arteries as well. This only aggravates the situation for the valvular disease increases the cardiac work at the same time that the coronary disease is depriving the myocardium of adequate blood supply.

Therefore the aging process injures the heart by essentially three primary pathologic processes:

- 1 Atherosclerotic changes within the coronary arteries
- 2 Valvular disease
- 3 Aging of the parenchyma *per se* of the heart

These factors may exist separately or in various obvious combinations. The second occurs least frequently.

- 5 Atropine sulfate (gr 1/150 or 0.3 mg) may be used also but it is certainly not indicated routinely.
- 6 Oxygen should be used as early as possible, preferably with the patient in an oxygen chamber or tent and at concentrations of 50 per cent. The oxygen and cool tent are exceedingly important agents. If the patient does not object it should be used even if there is no evidence of cyanosis. Employ the best method available.
- 7 In the presence of congestive heart failure *digitalis* should be used as well as salt restriction and diuretics. The latter two may suffice and may be more important. Salt (sodium) restriction should be employed routinely with all infections.
- 8 Quinidine (gr 6 or 0.4 Gm every two to four hours) is used for *malta* *to* *be* *used* *in* *or* *frequent* *is* *is* *used* *quinidine* fails. It must be employed cautiously, especially in arrhythmias of ventricular origin because of the tendency toward ventricular fibrillation and death.
- 9 Liquid or soft diet (for example, baby foods) may be given for the first few days if the patient desires food. The amount may be increased and vitamins may be added as necessary. Carbohydrates such as candy should be allowed and even ordered therapeutically.
- 10 Caffeine beverages, tobacco or alcohol should be avoided.
- 11 The patient should be instructed to move his legs around slowly in bed to avoid thrombophlebitis.
- 12 A low salt diet should be routine until the myocardial reserve has been adequately estimated.
- 13 General hygiene measures should be instituted. The stool should be kept soft with laxatives to avoid straining and associated disturbances in hemodynamics during bowel movement. Purgatives should not be used.
- 14 Drugs and stimulants should be avoided. They do more harm than good. The patient's body not only has to overcome his disease but the various drugs administered. Intravenous medication and fluids should not be used unless they are absolutely necessary.

(b) **Angina Pectoris** — Angina pectoris is frequently associated with aging especially with coronary artery sclerosis. It is often associated with other types of cardiac disease such as that due to *hypertension*.

Its incidence varies a great deal. It is found in all races, sexes and regions of the earth. It is more common in men than women and less common in Negroes. It is usually associated with (a) 50 per cent) with organic process. It increases with age and is more common in people working under

transient, and therefore the patient should be watched closely in order that it not be overlooked

8 There are *miscellaneous manifestations* present, such as faintness, syncope, nausea, vomiting, convulsions, mental disturbances of varying degree and even coma. *Adams-Stokes syndrome* (vertigo, faintness, syncope, convulsions and bradycardia), due to complete A-V block, may occur if there is a posteroseptal infarct

9 *Congestive heart failure* with its various manifestations may develop at some time during the immediate or subsequent course of the infarction

10 *Physical examination* will reveal these manifestations plus cardiac enlargement in many instances and murmurs that might have been present previously. A soft blowing systolic mitral murmur is likely to develop. This is referred to as a functional murmur. There is nothing particularly characteristic of infarction on examination except possibly the friction rub. Any previous disease states, such as might be associated with senility and arteriosclerosis, are noted if present

11 *Roentgenographic examination* usually shows nothing characteristic of infarction except a *ventricular aneurysm*, if present, or an area of *muscular inactivity* on a roentgenokymogram or fluoroscopic examination when this is performed. There may be cardiac enlargement due to a previous disease or because of the infarct

The *course* of myocardial infarction is variable. It depends upon the size, location, complications of the infarct and general health of the patient. The patient may live only a few hours or days. About 20 per cent die during the first month, whereas 25 per cent survive ten or more years. With prompt and adequate treatment the prognosis is good for the first infarction. The incidence of death increases rapidly with the number of infarctions. Such *complicating states* as impaired renal function, old age, shock, congestive heart failure, high fever and leukocytosis, acute left ventricular failure, gallop rhythm, heart block, pulsus alternans, paroxysmal tachycardia, pneumonia or similar systemic diseases make the prognosis worse.

Among the *complications* resulting from infarction are cardiac aneurysm, cardiac rupture, disturbance in mechanism, congestive heart failure, thrombo-embolic phenomena and ventricular fibrillation with death.

The *treatment* for uncomplicated myocardial infarction may be outlined as follows:

- 1 *Absolute rest* in bed with complete elimination of psychic disturbances for at least six weeks. Bathroom privileges are not allowed.
- 2 Comfortable and pleasant surroundings with adequate and careful nursing.
- 3 *Morphine sulfate* in adequate doses only (gr $\frac{1}{4}$ or 15 mg.) repeated as often as necessary for the pain.
- 4 *Visitors or disturbing guests* should not be permitted for the first two or three weeks.

A number of patients die suddenly during an attack of pain and many develop coronary occlusion. In some instances the angina pectoris follows an attack of myocardial infarction presumably arising from adjacent vessels. The converse is also true in that chronic angina pectoris may be cured by infarction of the involved area. The degree of myocardium varies considerably. Some patients have such frequent and severe episodes that they are almost completely incapacitated. Of course a clinical cure is also possible and occurs not infrequently.

Such complications as auricular flutter and fibrillation, paroxysmal tachycardia, other irregularities of the cardiac mechanism, coronary occlusion and congestive heart failure may occur.

The treatment of angina pectoris consists in the following measures:

1. *Mental and physical rest* is the most important requirement, the nature of the rest varying with the circumstances. Absolute rest in bed should be prescribed if the episodes are frequent and severe. If they are mild, infrequent and associated with hard work or business pressure, a vacation in a different environment is indicated. Long periods of sleep, rest in bed after meals and the like should be advised. Physical and mental activity should never extend to the point of producing pain. It is essential that any anxiety state be properly managed; this can usually be done by the average clinician, a psychiatrist not being necessary.

2. *Infections*, problems of diet, sleep and the like should be given serious consideration as described previously for coronary occlusion. Tobacco, caffeine beverages and alcohol should be forbidden.

Drugs except the nitrites are of little use. Nitroglycerin (see 11)

Sedatives (phenobarbital in doses adequate to obtain the desired effects) should be employed only when absolutely necessary. Luxatives may be used if necessary. Digitalis and quinidine should be used for auricular flutter or fibrillation and paroxysmal tachycardia as previously indicated.

The role of surgical therapy has not yet been evaluated.

HYPERTENSIVE HEART DISEASE

Diastolic hypertension produces heart failure

... out the myocardium
an extra load but also a

... and damaged myocardium

extreme psychic tension or suffering with anxiety neuroses. The professional and business groups are especially susceptible to angina pectoris.

The mechanism is unknown. It is thought to be due to temporary coronary artery spasm with local impairment of the blood supply to the myocardium. It is known, however, that circumstances which produce arterial spasm elsewhere precipitate anginal pain. Coronary artery spasm therefore is said to be the mechanism for this pain. In support of this is the observation that the pain is more likely to occur in cold environments during emotional outbursts after meals and that it is relieved by vasodilators such as nitroglycerine and other nitrites. It may, however, be reproduced by a cellular metabolic disturbance independent of coronary spasm. Angina pectoris often antedates myocardial infarction. Certain physiologic observations such as the electrocardiographic disturbances during the pain are compatible with the idea of coronary artery spasm.

There is no known pathologic change characteristic of angina pectoris. Certain types of heart disease, however, are often associated with this syndrome.

The clinical picture typically consists of

1 Severe pain which has all of the characteristics of that described for coronary occlusion except (1) it does not last over fifteen minutes (2) it is brought on by exercise, worry or emotional disturbance such as fear, sorrow, etc. (3) it is relieved dramatically by nitroglycerine and (4) it is relieved by rest.

2 There is usually no associated circulatory collapse or shock.

3 There is no fever, leukocytosis or increase in the rate of the sedimentation of erythrocytes.

4 There is palpitation and dyspnea during and for several minutes after the pain. Much of this is due to the fear of impending death. Vertigo and faintness are often associated with the pain but syncope is rare.

5 The electrocardiogram shows depression of the ST segments and lowering or inversion of the T waves during the attack. Characteristically the electrocardiogram reverts to the previous pattern as soon as the pain subsides. Since angina pectoris is not associated with infarction there are no QRS changes of muscle death.

6 On physical examination few abnormalities are noted. During the episodes of pain tachycardia, dyspnea and elevation in blood pressure may be noted. Signs of previous cardiac disease are found in about 70 per cent of patients. A friction rub is never heard.

7 The diagnosis is made almost entirely by means of an adequate history. The electrocardiographic changes when present establish the diagnosis.

The course of angina pectoris is variable depending on the nature of the underlying cardiac state and the adequacy with which the patient takes care of himself. The average duration of life after the onset of angina pectoris is about five to eight years. This is definitely longer in those patients who are properly managed and who abide by therapeutic instructions. The life expectancy therefore varies with different series of patients.

less psychic and business strain, or environment preference. The endocrine glands are known to influence arterial blood pressure, hypertension at the menopause is an example.

The pathologic picture varies with the etiologic type of hypertension.

amount of intercellular fibrous connective tissue and cells of chronic inflammation. Although the left ventricle exhibits the greatest hypertrophy, the entire heart is usually involved. This is especially true after left ventricular congestive heart failure has occurred and arteriolar disease becomes severe or there is a serious toxic state present, such as renal insufficiency.

The arterioles and arteries reveal hypertrophy of the muscular coat.

muscular disease. Since the changes are so diffuse, biopsy of the skeletal muscle is employed in diagnosis. The process is patchy, however, and therefore representative sampling is necessary.

If
when
be present

TABLE 10 — ETIOLOGIC CLASSIFICATION OF DIASTOLIC HYPERTENSION

I PRIMARY

A Essential Hypertension

- 1 Benign
- 2 Malignant

II SECONDARY (may be clinically benign or malignant)

A Renal

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1 Hemorrhagic or glomerular nephritis | 8 Atherant renal artery |
| 2 Pyelonephritis | 9 Amyloidosis |
| 3 Neoplasia | 10 Ischemia |
| 4 Polycystic disease | 11 Trauma |
| 5 Nephroses | 12 Congestive heart failure (?) |
| 6 Hydronephrosis | 13 Narrowing of lumen of renal artery |
| 7 Spinal disease | 14 Constriction of aorta |

B Endocrine Dysfunction

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 Suprarenal | 3 Ovarian |
| (a) Pheochromocytoma | (a) Menopausal |
| (b) Adrenogenital syndrome | 4 Toxemia of pregnancy |
| 2 Pituitary | |
| (a) Basophilic syndrome | |

C Neuropsychologic

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 Psychoneuroses | 1 Cerebral lesions |
| (a) Anxiety neurosis | (a) Trauma |
| 2 Emotional disturbances | (b) Encephalitis |
| 3 Increased intracranial pressure | (c) Neoplasia |
| | 2 Diencephalic syndrome (?) |

In addition in renal hypertension there is an extra load on the heart due to the myocardium by nephritis, impaired renal function and associated toxic states. The student by glancing at the list of the various types of hypertension below can evaluate such combinations of injury from his knowledge of the disease and the resultant disturbed function.

The etiologic factors concerned in hypertension are unknown but the excellent work of Goldblatt, Page, Houssay and their associates should be studied by all students. Textbooks of physiology are also sources in this connection for discussions of the studies on hypertension and arterial blood pressure in general. These should be reviewed.

The arterial blood pressure is dependent upon

- 1 Cardiac output
- 2 Viscosity of the blood
- 3 Volume of the blood
- 4 Volume of the vascular bed
- 5 Peripheral resistance

The over-all pressure in a system of tubes containing flowing fluid obviously depends on the force with which it is being pumped and the rate at which it is being pumped. The more vigorous the pumping the higher the pressure and *vice versa*. Furthermore all other factors being equal the more viscous the flowing fluid the higher the pressure. It is understandable that if the volume of the vascular bed remains unchanged and the volume of blood placed in it is increased the pressure will rise. Blood vessels are elastic distensible tubes and since the physics of distensible tubes has received little or no attention by investigators the disturbances in hemodynamics in hypertension are not well understood. The resistance offered to the flow of fluid in tubes determines to a large extent the pressure within the tubes. Everyone has noted that opening the nozzle on a garden hose reduces the pressure of the water coming out. In diastolic hypertension the peripheral resistance at least is increased as evidenced by the arteriolar spasm and muscular hypertrophy in the arterioles.

In essential hypertension a diastolic hypertension all of the foregoing five factors are said to be within normal limits except the peripheral resistance which is increased. The cause of the arteriolar spasm which produces this is obscure.

The incidence and mortality of hypertension and hypertensive heart disease is high. There are over 100,000 deaths annually from hypertension in the United States where the incidence is highest among Negroes. Its occurrence throughout the world has not been properly studied. It occurs in both sexes with about equal frequency. Certain hereditary constitutional factors seem to be important in influencing its incidence. High blood pressure tends to be more common in certain families especially people who are robust, overweight and of a nervous, emotional or excitable temperament. Climate may be due to the climate itself but to suc

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less psychic and business strain or environment preference. The endocrine glands are known to influence arterial blood pressure, hypertension at the menopause is an example.

The pathologic picture varies with the etiologic type of hypertension. It results in left ventricular hypertrophy (1000 gr. or more), degeneration of the muscle fibers and increase in the number of intercellular spaces and cells of chronic inflammation. Although the left ventricle exhibits the greatest hypertrophy, the entire heart is usually involved. This is especially true after left ventricular congestive heart failure has occurred and arteriolar disease becomes severe or there is a serious toxic state present, such as renal insufficiency.

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- 3 Nephritis
- 4 Polycystic disease
- 5 Nephritis
- 6 Hyperthyroidism
- 7 Metrorrhoidal arteries
- 8 Arteriosclerosis
- 9 Infarction
- 10 Struma
- 11 Congestive heart failure (?)
- 12 Atherosclerosis of the coronary arteries
- 13 Circulation of the placenta

B Endocrine Dysfunction

- 1 Suprarenal
 - (a) Pheochromocytoma
 - (b) Adrenogenital syndrome
- 2 Pituitary
 - (a) Basophilic syndrome
- 3 Ovarian
- (1) Menopausal
- 4 Toxicosis of pregnancy

C Neurologic

- 1 Cerebral lesions
 - (a) Trauma
 - (b) Encephalitis
 - (c) Neoplasia
- 2 Emotional hysterical cases
- 3 Increased intracranial pressure
- 5 Diabetic syndrome (?)

In addition in renal hypertension there is an extra load on the heart damage to the myocardium by nephritis impaired renal function and associated toxic states. The student by glancing at the list of the various types of hypertension below, can evaluate such combinations of injury from his knowledge of the disease and the resultant disturbed function.

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The arterioles and arteries reveal hypertrophy of the muscular coat. There may be intimal thickening and proliferation. The walls of the arterioles are acutely inflamed with necrosis, rupture and thrombosis in malignant essential hypertension. The arteriolar pathology is diagnostic of this latter disease. Since the changes are so diffuse, biopsy of the skeletal muscle is employed in diagnosis. The process is patchy, however, and therefore several sections of the muscle must be taken to detect the changes. If there is true uremia associated with the hypertension, the cardiac muscle will show a greater degree of degeneration. Uremic pericarditis may also be present.

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- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1 Hemorrhagic or glomerular cystitis | 8 Aberrant renal artery |
| 2 Pyelonephritis | 9 Amyloidosis |
| 3 Nephrosis | 10 Infarction |
| 4 Polycystic disease | 11 Trauma |
| 5 Nephroses | 12 Congestive heart failure (?) |
| 6 Hypernephroma | 13 Narrowing of lumen of renal artery |
| 7 Renal failure | 14 Calcification of aorta |

B Endocrine Dysfunction

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 Suprarenal | 3 Ovarian |
| (a) Pheochromocytoma | (a) Adenoma |
| (b) Adrenogenital syndrome | 4 Toxemia of pregnancy |
| 2 Pituitary | |
| (a) Basophilic syndrome | |

C Neurologic

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 Psychoneurosis | 4 Cerebral lesions |
| (a) Anxiety neurosis | (a) Trauma |
| 2 Emotional disturbance | (b) Encephalitis |
| 3 Increased intracranial pressure | (c) Neoplasia |
| | 5 Diabetic bulbar syndrome (?) |

D Toxic

- 1 Acute lead poisoning
- 2 Systemic infection
- 3 Toxemia of pregnancy

I Miscellaneous

- 1 Vascular angiotides
 - (a) Lupus erythematosus disseminatus
 - (b) Periarthritis nodosa

The *clinical manifestations* of hypertensive heart disease are frequently drastically altered by the diseases associated with the hypertension other than the heart disease. For example, the presence of renal insufficiency cerebral thrombosis or hemorrhage endocrine disturbances or gastrointestinal disturbances will modify the cardiac picture. *Hypertension when fatal results in death from*

- 1 Heart failure
- 2 Renal failure
- 3 Cerebral thrombosis or hemorrhage

Not infrequently these exist simultaneously. The cardiac manifestations themselves are essentially the same as those described for arteriosclerosis. There may be disturbances in *cardiac function* due to

- 1 Congestive heart failure
- 2 Angina pectoris
- 3 Coronary occlusion
- 4 Cardiac irregularities and cardiac consciousness

The same discussions presented for the aging heart apply here. In fact in the aging heart the heart in hypertension is diseased because of

- (a) Direct damage to the myocardium by toxins or disturbances in cellular metabolism
- (b) Coronary insufficiency that is simultaneous angiospasm and impaired blood flow with increased cardiac work

It should also be remembered that many patients who have diastolic hypertension usually have arteriosclerosis and other manifestations of aging. These patients describe a feeling of ill health with fatigability weakness dyspnea on exertion cardiac pain of various sorts palpitation cardiac irregularities etc. The *course* in degree depending upon the duration and severity of the disease process. Congestive heart failure angina pectoris or coronary thrombosis¹ are liable to occur. These symptoms are the same as they are for the other etiologic types of similar heart disease.

Frequently renal disease with renal failure is present. Then the *symptoms and signs of true uremia* (drowsiness nausea vomiting coma ammoniacal odor to the breath urea frost pericardial friction rub etc.) modify the clinical cardiac picture.

¹ Coronary artery occlusion resulting from an embolus in a coronary artery is extremely rare there being less than 50 such proved instances in the medical literature.

Physical examination reveals the diastolic hypertension. The ophthalmoscopic examination is an index of the extent of arteriolar disease and the severity of the hypertension and aids in differentiating benign from malignant hypertension. The heart is usually large if the disease is well advanced. Cardiac irregularities are observed: premature contractions, auricular fibrillation or flutter, and paroxysmal tachycardia being noted most frequently. Functional murmurs, especially a blowing mitral murmur, are usually found. Aortic dilatation due to the hypertension produces aortic valvular insufficiency with a soft blowing diastolic aortic murmur. All or some of the signs of left or left and right ventricular congestive heart failure may be encountered.

The blood pressure varies greatly and normally to enable the circulation to meet the extreme variations in tissue demands for blood. These variations may be even more extreme than the normal resting blood pressure.

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statistically for normal people. However this may be equivalent to saying that arteriosclerosis is a normal process if found in a man over sixty years of age. Such problems await solution. In the young adult 13, and 90 may be the respective upper limits. Still more important values which are little known are the levels reached during daily activities and experiences such as exercise, emotional excitement, eating, disease, and variations in environmental temperature and humidity. Such stresses as these are probably responsible for temporary elevations in blood pressure which precipitate such syndromes as coronary occlusion, cerebral hemorrhage and other vascular accidents. It is because of these fluctuations that the pressure is maintained as near the resting levels as possible during treatment which provides rest and the avoidance of activities that elevate the arterial blood pressure.

The course of hypertensive heart disease depends upon the type and severity of the hypertension, the nature of the complicating states, age of the patient, ability and effort to follow therapeutic instructions, metabolism, etc. Patients under good medical therapy live many years. The physician must of course distinguish between the medical therapy he outlines for his patient and the actual regimen that results for this is important in prognosis. Unless instructions are followed the cardiac complications, congestive heart failure, and a heart

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practically all patients
established

D Toxic

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- 2 Systemic infections
- 3 Toxicosis of pregnancy

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- (a) Direct damage to the myocardium by toxins or disturbances in cellular metabolism
- (b) Coronary insufficiency, that is, simultaneous angiospasm and impaired blood flow with increased cardiac work

It should also be remembered that many patients who have diastolic hypertension usually have arteriosclerosis and other manifestations of aging. These patients describe a feeling of ill health with fatigability, weakness, dyspnea on exertion, cardiac pain of various sorts, palpitation, cardiac irregularities, etc. These vary in degree depending upon the duration and severity of the disease process. Congestive heart failure, angina pectoris or coronary thrombosis¹ are liable to occur. These symptoms are the same as they are for the other etiologic types of similar heart disease.

Frequently renal disease with renal failure is present. Then the symptoms and signs of true uremia (drowsiness, nausea, vomiting, ammonia odor to the breath, urea frost, pericardial friction rub, etc.) modify the clinical cardiac picture.

¹ Coronary artery occlusion resulting from an embolus in a coronary artery is extremely rare; there being less than 50 such proved instances in the medical literature.

nervous system must be made in the early stages of the disease before the pathologic processes have become irreversible if satisfactory results are to be obtained. Its value has yet to be established. The newer vasodilator drugs seem to have eliminated sympathetic surgical procedures for hypertension.

The treatment of the cardiac complications congestive heart failure, angina pectoris, coronary occlusion, cardiac irregularities, etc. have been described elsewhere. The management of these should supplement the treatment of the hypertension. Prevention of cardiac damage is attained by early treatment of the hypertension.

It is beyond the intention of this book to discuss the management of the many noncardiac complications of hypertension. The student should obtain this from other more detailed sources in the medical literature.

SYPHILITIC HEART DISEASE

Syphilis produces aortic aneurysm and (4) rarely infection of the coronary arteries.

Syphilis is becoming rare and

Treponema pallidum is the etiological agent of heart disease. The majority of cases occur in the fifth to sixth decades of life, but the age of patients with this disease is increasing from less than ten to more than seventy years. Men are more often affected than women, the ratio being about 2 to 1. The economic and social status is important, since people of the low income and low social levels are more likely to contract and neglect syphilitic infections. This is true throughout the world.

In brief, the pathologic changes occur because

1. Involvement of the coronary vessels occurs with narrowing of their lumina and resultant impairment of blood supply to the myocardium. This results from direct involvement of the anterior and posterior coronary arteries near their origins. The coronary ostia may become narrowed or even occluded by local aortitis at the root of the aorta.
2. Aortitis near the sinuses of Valsalva results in dilatation of the aortic ring and fibrosis and distortion of the aortic valve. These anatomic changes are followed by aortic regurgitation which in turn overloads the left ventricle and decreases the diastolic blood pressure.

TABLE II — THE CAUSE OF DEATH IN ESSENTIAL HYPERTENSION

	Per cent
Congestive heart failure	45
Cerebral artery hemorrhage or thrombosis	11
Coronary failure	16
Renal failure	9
Myocardiac	11

The treatment of hypertensive heart disease may be divided into

- 1 Treatment of the hypertension
- 2 Prevention or delay of cardiac damage
- 3 Management of the cardiac disease and its complications
- 4 Management of the various noncardiac complications due to the hypertension

Hypertension cannot be cured today nor is there any specific therapy for essential hypertension. The sooner the doctor and the patient realize this the more effective therapy will become. For therapy to be effective a complete inventory of the patient's health must be obtained in order to determine cause reversible. Therapy should be and rigorously

It should include

- 1 *Mental and physical rest* which are extremely important. All anxiety states should be vigorously treated to effect good results.
- 2 The *diet* should be well balanced in every respect but should not include an excessive amount of proteins preferably not more than 1 gram per kilogram of body weight. Water should be permitted freely but sodium in all its forms should be restricted.
- 3 *Sedatives* phenobarbital (gr 1 or 60 mg) should be given as often as is necessary to obtain the desired results. Remember that the response of patients to drugs varies widely.
- 4 *Vasodilators*. Most of them are too toxic to be of continuous service in a disease as chronic as hypertension. Anyone who offers a cure for hypertension should be approached with great caution and skepticism. The new vasodilators such as hexamethonium and hydrazinophthalazine offer considerable promise but have yet to be evaluated thoroughly. More effective drugs of this nature are being developed rapidly.
- 5 *General hygienic measures* such as laxatives, vacations, rest in bed after meals, plenty of sleep and prompt care of infections are to be urged.
- 6 *Frequent visits to the physician* are necessary for follow up and most important to keep the patient on his medical regimen and reminded that his illness requires continual treatment.
- 7 *Surgical therapy* for essential hypertension has a limited role at present. It should be employed early and only after adequate medical therapy has failed. A surgical approach to the sympathetic

elevation of the systolic and severe depression of the diastolic blood pressure (Fig. 144). This high pulse pressure is associated with the following signs:

a *Corrigan or water hammer pulse* is a pulse which is full and bounding. It is best elicited by raising the patient's arm vertically while palpating the radial artery with the palmar aspects of the four fingers.

b *Traube's pistol-shot sound* is a loud sound heard with each systolic ejection over the femoral artery or any large artery which is partially compressed by the bell of the stethoscope.

c *Capillary pulsations* are elicited in several ways:

- (1) A finger nail area is produced area to reduce diastole.
- (2) The lighted end of a small pocket flashlight is pressed against the finger pad revealing a red blush which pulsates in intensity with each cardiac systole.
- (3) A clean glass microscope slide is pressed against the skin over the forehead until a small white blanched area is produced. The blanched area decreases in size with cardiac systole and increases with diastole.
- (4) The forehead is rubbed vigorously until an area of erythema is produced. This flushed area will pulsate in intensity with each cardiac cycle.

d *Blowing systolic murmur* is heard at the base of the heart.

Complete occlusion of a large artery distal to its origin results in the reversal of blood flow during diastole.

Legg's stasis produced by the Triponema results in a clinical syndrome which is not easy to identify. The important diagnostic characteristics are:

a *Positive evidence of a blockage* is the presence of a bruit about 100 per cent.

b *Dyspnea*.

c *Substernal pain* ranging from a vague type to the true pain of angina pectoris.

d *Weakness*. This is heard best.

4. *Aortic aneurysms* will produce rather characteristic manifestations. The aneurysms which localize near the root or ascending aorta are more apt to produce signs whereas those of the arch produce early symptoms. Aneurysms produce clinical disturbances by:

- a Pressure phenomena due to their mass and position.
- b Disturbances in hemodynamics.
- c Hemorrhage.

- 3 Aortitis may also result in weakening of the wall with formation of aneurysm. An aneurysm of the root of the aorta usually interfere with coronary circulation and may interfere mechanically with cardiac function.
- 4 There may be diffuse inflammation of the myocardium produced by direct spirochetal infection. This is rare and has been doubted by some observers. The clinical picture is essentially the same as that previously described for myocarditis.
- 5 Spirochetal infection of the cardiac muscle may be localized with gumma formation. The clinical picture is determined by the location of the gumma. For example a gumma involving the A-V node will result in complete heart block and the like.

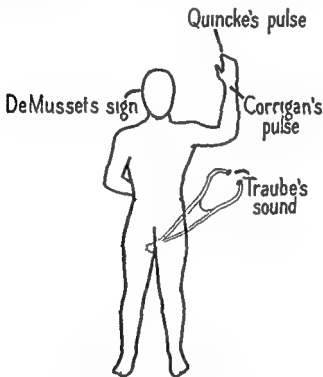


FIG 144 —Illustration summarizing the important peripheral vascular signs of aortic valvular insufficiency

The student is urged to consult sources describing in detail the pathologic changes produced in the heart and aorta by the *Treponema pallidum*.

The clinical picture depends upon the pathologic changes which produce the cardiac disease. (1) Involvement of the coronary vessels and their ostia with narrowing of their lumina may result in angina pectoris or even on rare occasions coronary occlusion. (2) Aortic valvular insufficiency often leads to congestive heart failure. The associated murmurs and thrills have already been described. Some of the largest hearts encountered clinically occur as a result of this type of involvement. Aortic insufficiency produces

elevation of the systolic and severe depression of the diastolic blood pressure (Fig. 144). This high pulse pressure is associated with the following signs:

a. *Corrigan or water hammer pulse* is a pulse which is full and bounding while palpating the

with each systolic ejection over the femoral artery or any large artery which is partially compressed by the bell of the stethoscope.

■ *Capillary pulsations* are elicited in several ways:

- (1) A finger nail is pressed down at its edge until a small blanched area is produced under it. Capillary pulsations cause this blanched area to reduce in size with cardiac systole and to increase with diastole.
- (2) The lighted end of a small pocket flashlight is pressed against the finger pad revealing a red blush which pulsates in intensity with each cardiac systole.
- (3) A clean glass microscope slide is pressed against the skin over the forehead until a small white blanched area is produced. The blanched area decreases in size with cardiac systole and increases with diastole.
- (4) The forehead is rubbed vigorously until an area of erythema is produced. This flushed area will pulsate in intensity with each cardiac cycle.

d. *Roentgen*

an aneurysm of a large artery due to its contended to the reversal of blood flow during diastole.

3. *Acute aortitis* produced by the *Treponema* results in a clinical syndrome which is not easy to identify. The important diagnostic characteristics are:

a. *Positive evidence of syphilis*. The serologic reactions are positive in about 100 per cent of patients with acute aortitis.

b. *Dyspnea on exertion* much like that previously described.

c. *Substernal pain* ranging from a vague type to the true pain of angina pectoris.

d. A *labour quality* and accentuated aortic second sound. This is heard best when the patient stops his breathing in deep expiration.

e. *Roentgenographic* evidence of dilatation of the aorta.

4. *Syphilitic aneurysms* will produce rather characteristic manifestations. The aneurysms which localize near the root or ascending aorta are more apt to produce signs, whereas those of the arch produce early symptoms. Aneurysms produce clinical disturbances by:

a. *Pressure phenomena* due to their mass and position.

b. *Disturbances in hemodynamics*.

c. *Hemorrhage*.

The nature of the pressure phenomena is determined by the *size, location and rapidity of development* of the aneurysm. An aneurysmal mass which does not disturb other structures by pressure will produce little trouble unless it ruptures. It is impossible in any single monograph to describe all of the possible symptoms and signs due to an aneurysm. The disturbances are logical if the student correlates anatomic relationships and attempts to predict the results that a growing pulsating mass of varying size could produce if it developed from various portions of the aorta. For example, an aneurysm located in the ascending portion of the aorta might result in pressure on the sternum. Pulsating pressure on the sternum causes pain and later erosion of the sternum with a protruding tender pulsating mass.

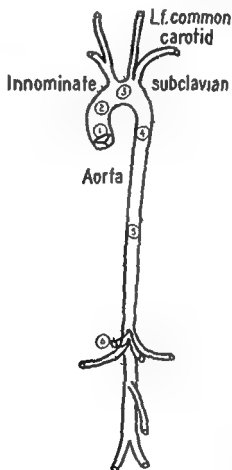


FIG. 145.—Diagram of the common sites of an aortic aneurysm. When located at points 1 and 2 signs of an aneurysm are easily describable since it is closer to the thoracic wall. The aneurysms at points 3 and 4 are more prone to produce symptoms by pressure effects.

under an inflamed area of skin. This mass is prone to rupture. An aneurysm of the arch of the aorta may press on the left recurrent laryngeal nerve with resulting hoarseness (Fig 145). If this aneurysm grows, it will obviously produce pressure on the trachea or left bronchus. The constant pressure on the bronchus is soon followed by inflammation.

for pneumonia to develop in the pulmonary area supplied. There may be a sudden and extensive rupture into the bronchus or trachea with ensuing death. The aneurysm may compress the esophagus and lead to impairment of swallowing. A fatal hemorrhage into the esophagus may occur. An aortic aneurysm may rupture into the pulmonary artery,



FIG 146 The solid line outlines the cardiac silhouette in the anteroposterior view of a patient with an aneurysm at the root of the aorta.

producing acute anastomosis between these two vessels and resulting in a

aneurysms

An aneurysm will disturb the flow and pressure of blood in distal arteries; therefore a properly placed aneurysm may reduce the pressure in the left brachial artery without disturbing that in the right, thereby producing a wide difference in the arterial pressures in the two arms. An aneurysm of the root of the aorta may sometimes impair the coronary circulation, resulting in the coronary pain.

The nature of the pressure phenomena is determined by the *site* location and *rapidity of development* of the aneurysm. An aneurysmal mass which does not disturb other structures by pressure will produce little trouble unless it ruptures. It is impossible in any single monograph to describe all of the possible symptoms and signs due to an aneurysm. The disturbances are logical if the student correlates anatomic relationships and attempts to predict the results that a growing pulsating mass of varying size could produce if it developed from various portions of the aorta. For example an aneurysm located in the ascending portion of the aorta might result in pressure on the sternum. Pulsating pressure on the sternum causes pain and later erosion of the sternum with a protruding tender pulsating mass.

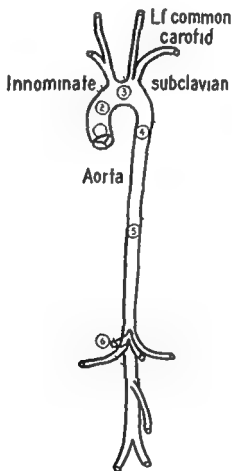


FIG. 1.—Diagram of the locations of an aortic aneurysm. When located at point 1

under an inflamed area of skin. This mass is prone to rupture. An aneurysm of the arch of the aorta may press on the left recurrent laryngeal nerve with resulting hoarseness (Fig. 141). If this aneurysm grows, it will obviously produce pressure on the trachea or left bronchus. The constant pulsation against these cartilaginous tubes is soon followed by inflammation, erosion and bleeding from the mucosa with mild or severe *hemoptysis*. If there is enough compression and edema of the bronchial mucosa to close the lumen, *atelectasis* will develop. There is a strong tendency for pneumonia to develop in the pulmonary area supplied by the bronchus. There may be a sudden and extensive rupture into the *bronchus* or *trachea* with ensuing death. The aneurysm may compress the *esophagus* and lead to impairment of swallowing. A fatal hemorrhage into the esophagus may occur. An aortic aneurysm may rupture into the pulmonary artery,



FIG. 141.—The solid line outlines the cardiac silhouette in the anterior view of a patient with an aneurysm at the root of the aorta.

producing acute *myocarditis* between these two vessels and resulting in a syndrome typical of *patent ductus arteriosus*. When *atelectasis pneumonia* or recurrent laryngeal paralysis occurs, the physical signs characteristic of these pathologic states are evident on examination.

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Treatment—The treatment of thoracic aneurysms is still unsatisfactory and mainly supportive. *Rest, sedatives, morphine* and *penicillin* therapy are essentially all that one can offer. *Proper hygienic and psychic measures* are indicated as they are in all problems of therapy.

The diagnosis of syphilitic heart disease is usually not difficult. Clinical evidence of heart disease that is usually syphilitic in origin such as aortic insufficiency, aortitis or aneurysm of the aorta in a patient who is known to have syphilis may be confirmed by a history of a primary lesion, adequate previous diagnosis in a patient inadequately treated, or conclusive serologic evidence for a number of years establishes the diagnosis. The infection must be present about ten or more years before aortic insufficiency or aortic aneurysm develops, whereas aortitis appears clinically after only several weeks of infection.

The course of cardiovascular syphilis varies with the extent and duration of the disease. *Syphilitic aortitis* will respond to therapy with complete cure if early and adequate antisyphilitic therapy is administered. The course of *aortic insufficiency* and *aneurysm* is determined not by the syphilis but by the heart disease. Both of the latter are extremely grave. Once *congestive heart failure* has occurred in aortic insufficiency, the majority of patients will be dead within two years. Cardiovascular syphilis carries a grave prognosis. *Angina pectoris, coronary occlusion* and *congestive heart failure, ruptured aneurysm* and *pneumonia* are the most common complications of cardiovascular syphilis.

The treatment of syphilitic heart disease resolves itself into two categories: (1) *treatment of heart disease* and (2) *treatment of the syphilis*.

The treatment of the heart disease always takes precedence over the syphilitic infection. The heart disease should be managed like any similar type of heart disease and as though the patient had no syphilitic infection. This entails proper care of congestive heart failure, angina pectoris or irregularities if present, as outlined elsewhere in the compendium.

The treatment of the syphilis consists in the use of penicillin which is administered while the patient is being treated for his heart disease. Although penicillin is usually recommended in doses of 600,000 units daily for 10 days, it is preferable to employ 1,000,000 units daily for 10 days. This should be repeated if the titer of the quantitative Kahn or Kolmer does not decline. In fact, the course of penicillin could be repeated in a couple of weeks anyway. There is much discussion about the dangers due to Herxheimer reactions, especially during the acute cardiovascular episodes. Some physicians on the other hand have used penicillin prophylactically in all of their patients with congestive failure and have learned later that the patient has syphilis but have observed no untoward reactions. This has happened often enough to indicate absence of danger from reactions other than febrile to penicillin therapy. Paradoxical therapeutic reactions have not been shown to occur with the use of penicillin nor has any cardiac state been materially if at all aggravated by penicillin. Do not hesitate to use penicillin and do not use it with economy. *The heavy metals no longer have any place in antisyphilitic therapy*.

RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE

Rheumatic fever is characteristically associated with involvement of the heart. The endocardium, myocardium and pericardium may be involved individually or all three simultaneously. The cardiac disease varies considerably in degree and frequency, being more prevalent and severe in the cold regions of the earth than in the warm ones. The fulminating types of acute rheumatic heart disease seen in the New England States are relatively rare in the Gulf Coast States. Rheumatic fever of a subtle sort is extremely common in warm climates.

The etiology of rheumatic fever has not been established, nor has the pathogenetic relationship of rheumatic fever to the cardiac state. It is known that streptococci infections, particularly of the respiratory tract, are related to acute rheumatic fever. The epidemiology, mode of entry, precipitating causes and influence of heredity are not well understood. There is no significant difference in incidence by sex. Acute rheumatic fever is much more frequent in the young age group (Table 12), particularly in children from four to fifteen years of age. It is common in the young adult and rare in the old patient. Rheumatic heart disease begins during illness from acute rheumatic fever, although it may not be noted until many years later. There is no significant racial difference in incidence. Rheumatic fever seems to have a familial tendency, which is probably more environmental than genetic. Poor housing, nutrition and medical care and crowded surroundings appear to be mainly concerned with the familial incidence. Economically and socially poor families tend to remain so for generations.

TABLE 12 — THE INCIDENCE OF RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE BY AGE

Years	Per cent
0-10	12
10-20	71
20-30	14
30-40	17
40-50	13
50-60	8
60-70	4
Over 70	1

The pathologic

finds

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processes manifested by an accumulation around small vessels of small round mononuclear cells, a few giant cells and several rather large polymorphonuclear cells. There may be many such coalescing nodules or isolated solitary ones. These nodules lead with scar or fibrous tissue formation. The Aschoff body is apparently preceded by a small area of necrosis with a hemorrhagic tendency. These pathologic processes develop in the myocardium whenever the heart is involved. There may be associated endocardial or pericardial damage as well. When all three structures are involved pericarditis exists.

Treatment—The treatment of thoracic aneurysms is still unsatisfactory and mainly supportive. Rest, sedatives, morphine and penicillin therapy are essentially all that one can offer. Proper hygienic and psychic measures are indicated as they are in all problems of therapy.

The diagnosis of syphilitic heart disease is usually not difficult. Clinical evidence of heart disease that is usually syphilitic in origin such as aortic insufficiency, aortitis or aneurysm of the aorta in a patient who is known to have syphilis may be confirmed by a history of a primary lesion, adequate previous diagnosis in a patient inadequately treated, or conclusive serologic evidence for a number of years establishes the diagnosis. The infection must be present about ten or more years before aortic insufficiency or aortic aneurysm develops where aortitis appears clinically after only several weeks of infection.

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TABLE 12 THE INCIDENCE OF RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE BY AGE

Years	Per cent
0-10	12
10-20	31
20-30	14
30-40	17
40-50	13
50-60	8
60-70	4
Over 70	1

The pathologic
findings
are

accumulation of giant cells and cells. There may be many such coalescing nodules or isolated solitary ones. These nodules heal with scar or fibrous tissue formation. The Aschoff body is apparently preceded by a small area of necrosis with a hemorrhagic tendency. These pathologic processes develop in the myocardium whenever the heart is involved. There may be associated endocardial or pericardial damage as well. When all three structures are involved, pancarditis exists.

The *endocardium* may be involved in any type. The valvular leaflet most often show a *verrucous* inflammatory reaction. The verrucal lesions or vegetations consist essentially of thrombi that is fibrin erythrocyte and leukocytes. These heal with fibrous tissue formation thickening and distortion of the valves and consequent *impaired valvular function*. Valvular function is even more disturbed when the *chordæ tendineæ* are involved. The descending order of frequency of valvular involvement is essentially as follows:

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 Mitral | 4 Mitral aortic and tricuspid |
| 2 Mitral and aortic | 5 Tricuspid |
| 3 Aortic | 6 Pulmonic |

The *myocardial inflammation* varies in degree. When it is severe and diffuse acute myocarditis results and the clinical and pathologic picture as described previously for myocarditis in general is present. The Aschoff bodies may be widely distributed and isolated. Their localization in the AV node results in heart block and their localization in one or the other bundle branches produces bundle branch block.

The *pericardium* is involved in the process relatively often. This is manifested by acute fibrinous pericarditis then pericarditis with effusion and finally chronic adhesive pericarditis. These processes have been discussed previously.

The *clinical manifestations* of rheumatic heart disease include:

- 1 Those associated with the episodes of acute rheumatic fever
- 2 Those resulting from the scars and fibrosis of healed lesions

Acute rheumatic heart disease in turn consists in essentially two groups of syndromes:

- 1 The *general or systemic manifestations* of acute rheumatic fever
- 2 The *cardiac manifestations* themselves

The student should acquaint himself with the clinical picture of acute rheumatic fever in all its manifestations. Acute rheumatic fever is characterized essentially by (1) *acute migratory polyarthritides* (swollen inflamed tender and painful joints which return to normal rapidly with previously normal joints becoming involved this continues for days or weeks) (2) fever (100° to 103° F. or more) which may be remittent or intermittent (3) chills or chilly sensations (4) headache (5) muscle weakness and prostration (6) chorea (7) sweating (8) dyspepsia (anorexia nausea vomiting) (9) epistaxis (10) loss of weight (11) erythema multiforme or purpuric rash and (12) subcutaneous nodules in the fascial planes and tendons. The clinical picture may be severe or so mild as to manifest itself merely by fatigue and low grade fever. Antecedent upper respiratory tract infections and acute or chronic tonsillitis or purrnasal sinusitis usually exists. Leukocytosis (10 000 to 20 000) increase in the rate of sedimentation of the erythrocytes increase in the antistreptolysin titer etc., will be noted on laboratory examination.

The cardiac involvement is manifested in the acute disease by

- 1 Tachycardia out of proportion to the fever
- 2 Palpitation
- 3 Pericardial aching soreness tenderness or heart consciousness
- 4 Dyspnea on exertion
- 5 Symptoms and signs of severe congestive heart failure in advanced forms of myocarditis
- 6 Murmurs of varying severity, particularly the murmurs of mitral or aortic insufficiency. There may be a rumbling diastolic mitral murmur of relative mitral stenosis if the left ventricle is greatly dilated. An aortic systolic murmur is heard if there are vortices on the aortic cusps. A pericardial friction rub may be heard.
- 7 Electrocardiographic abnormalities in the QRS complexes and T waves and prolongation or variations in duration on serial tracings of the P-R interval. The changes of pericarditis may be noted.
- 8 Roentgenologic changes in cardiac configuration or size in the mild episodes and diffuse enlargement in the severe ones. Pericardial effusion may be noted roentgenologically.

The cardiac manifestations of chronic rheumatic heart disease are of three types

- 1 Symptoms and signs of valvular heart disease (discussed previously) of which the following are the most common in descending order of frequency:
 - (a) Mitral insufficiency
 - (b) Mitral stenosis
 - (c) Mitral insufficiency and aortic stenosis
 - (d) Mitral stenosis and aortic insufficiency
 - (e) Tricuspid insufficiency or stenosis and any combination of, or all of, the foregoing valvular lesions.
 - 2 Chronic mediastinopericardial adhesions or constrictive pericarditis (concretion cord).
 - 3 Chronic myocardial damage or scarring. This is characterized by the clinical manifestations described previously for myocarditis and includes particularly disturbances in impulse conduction. Bundle branch block, A-V block and T wave changes are among the most common manifestations of old areas of fibrosis.
- Left ventricular heart failure is especially likely to develop as a result of any of these lesions. Angina pectoris and auricular flutter and fibrillation are frequently present with mitral aortic stenosis.
- The course of acute rheumatic heart disease varies considerably. Most of the patients survive the illness. Those who have repeated episodes of rheumatic fever and especially those who are improperly managed are prone to develop chronic rheumatic heart disease valvular heart disease in particular. Most patients who have had mild or even severe rheumatic fever and cardiac involvement make a complete clinical recovery. Those who sustain large areas of fibrosis or valvular sclerosis retain these lesions throughout the remainder of their lives. Infectious chronic illness catches

damage from other causes (poor nutrition, anemia, hypertension etc.) physical overexertion and severe psychic disturbances are prone to precipitate heart failure or severe cardiac irregularities such as auricular fibrillation. Congestive heart failure and subacute bacterial endocarditis are severe complications which often result in death. Severe valvular disease and chronic congestive heart failure are causes for invalidism. Pneumonia or severe systemic infections are complications which often result in death. Under proper care however some patients live practically normal lives until the seventh or eighth decade of life with severe valvular disease or pericardial adhesions.

Treatment—The treatment of rheumatic heart disease varies with the severity and stage of the disease. The main objective is to *prevent rheumatic fever*. (Consult textbooks of medicine and monographs for details.) Prolonged daily administration of sulfadiazine and the use of penicillin during periods of respiratory infections for ten- to fifteen-day intervals have been recommended and may be tried. Warm climates may also assist but all of these procedures do not necessarily offer much general promise nor can one know which patients are particularly likely to be benefited. If acute rheumatic fever has developed the aim becomes that of preventing or reducing cardiac damage. During this time *bed rest and food*, plenty of *liquids* and *good nursing* attention are of paramount importance. *Salicylates* in full doses must be administered (1 gram or 10 mg. per pound of body weight or to tolerance). The value of ACTH and cortisone remains to be fully established. If salicylates fail to function adequately these newer drugs may be tried in the severe acute phases of the disease. They have not been shown to prevent scar formation.

The patient must remain in *bed* until all systemic signs of activity of the acute rheumatic fever have subsided as evidenced by

- 1 Normal body temperature
- 2 Normal resting cardiac rate
- 3 Normal sedimentation rate
- 4 Normal blood picture
- 5 No symptoms

Even when these criteria have been fulfilled *bed rest* should not be suddenly terminated. The patient should return to normal activity slowly. Should there be any exacerbation of the rheumatic fever he should return to *bed promptly*. Measures to prevent recurrence of rheumatic fever are to be continued throughout the patient's life. *Frequent medical examinations* with cardiac surveys are indicated. *Tonsillectomy* is indicated only if the tonsils are diseased.

Patients with *chronic valvular disease* or *chronic pericardial disease* should

- 1 *Rest* (physically and mentally)
- 2 *W orl indoors* preferably
- 3 *Receive prompt treatment for all infections*
- 4 *Avoid competitive sports* or strenuous exercise the degree of exercise permitted being determined by the clinical picture

- 5 Follow good hygienic principles of diet, sleep, etc.
- 6 Receive adequate treatment for complications as they arise.
- 7 Receive surgical attention for chronic pericardial adhesions when necessary.

Surgical relief of the obstruction due to mitral stenosis is of considerable therapeutic value. Properly trained surgical teams can perform commissurotomy with relatively little operative risk to the patient and with considerable relief from his cardiac difficulties. The criteria for selection of patients for surgery will not be discussed here; a competent cardiologist is aware of these. Only rarely, if ever, should he have to resort to cardiac catheterization, and then only if congenital lesions of the heart are suspected as complicating defects.

Attacks of acute rheumatic fever may be

orally 20,000 units twice daily on an empty stomach of the sulfadiazine. The relative merits of the two drugs or the full value of either remain to be established.

THYROID HEART DISEASE

Thyroid disease may result in heart disease, hyperthyroid heart disease and (2) hypothyroid heart disease. If treated early and properly, they are completely reversible. For this reason it is essential that thyroid disease be recognized early before irreversible cardiac damage occurs.

Hyperthyroid Heart Disease

Hyperthyroidism is more frequent at this age group, since hyperthyroidism is more frequent at this age group. It is particularly true of Graves disease. Toxic adenoma is more likely to produce hyperthyroid heart disease in the later (forty to fifty years) age group. It is well to remember, however, that the disease may occur at any age.

The sex difference in incidence is considerable. The female sex is involved five times as often as the male. There are no racial differences.

The etiological mechanism for thyrotoxic heart disease remains mainly conjectural. There are certain factors, however, which must contribute to some extent to the development of the cardiac damage.

damage from other causes (poor nutrition, anaemia, hypertension etc.) physical overexertion and severe psychic disturbances are prone to precipitate heart failure or severe cardiac irregularities such as auricular fibrillation. Congestive heart failure and subacute bacterial endocarditis are severe complications which often result in death. Severe valvular disease and chronic congestive heart failure are causes for invalidism. Pneumonia or severe systemic infections are complications which often result in death. Under proper care, however, some patients live practically normal lives until the seventh or eighth decade of life with severe valvular disease or pericardial adhesions.

Treatment — The treatment of rheumatic heart disease varies with the severity and stage of the disease. The main objective is to *prevent rheumatic fever*. (Consult textbooks of medicine and monographs for details.) Prolonged daily administration of sulfadiazine and the use of penicillin during periods of respiratory infections for ten to fifteen-day intervals have been recommended and may be tried. Warm climates may also assist but all of these procedures do not necessarily offer much general promise nor can one know which patients are particularly likely to be benefited. If acute rheumatic fever has developed the aim becomes that of preventing or reducing cardiac damage. During this time *bed rest* *good food* *plenty of liquids* and *good nursing* attention are of paramount importance. *Salicylates* in full doses must be administered (1 grain or 60 mg. per pound of body weight or to tolerance). The value of ACTH and cortisone remains to be fully established. If salicylates fail to function adequately these newer drugs may be tried in the severe acute phases of the disease. They have not been shown to prevent scar formation.

The patient must remain in *bed* until all systemic signs of activity of the acute rheumatic fever have subsided as evidenced by

- 1 Normal body temperature
- 2 Normal resting cardiac rate
- 3 Normal sedimentation rate
- 4 Normal blood picture
- 5 No symptoms

Even when these criteria have been fulfilled *bed rest* should not be suddenly terminated. The patient should return to normal activity slowly. Should there be any exacerbation of the rheumatic fever he should return to bed promptly. Measures to prevent a recurrence of rheumatic fever are

1. *avoid all attacks of life* *Frequent medical examination*
Consult my is indicated only if

Patients with *chronic valvular disease* or *chronic pericardial disease* should

- 1 *Rest* (physically and mentally)
- 2 *Work indoors* preferably
- 3 *Receive prompt treatment for all infections*
- 4 *Avoid competitive sports* or strenuous exercise the degree of exercise permitted being determined by the clinical picture

The electrocardiogram is of considerable value in detection of myocardial damage. There are no characteristic electrocardiographic changes in hyperthyroidism although the tachycardia and P and T waves of high amplitude study is important for detection

propylthiouracil, or iodine is of great diagnostic importance, iodine alone being employed infrequently today.

Rheumatic fever, essential hypertension, neurocirculatory asthenia and thyroid crisis are among the clinical states which are concerned in the

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cating cardiac disturbances such as arteriosclerosis of the coronaries the prognosis is worse. All patients should be cured. Only those who fail to see a physician early enough or who have underlying associated cardiac disease should have an unfavorable prognosis.

Treatment—The treatment of hyperthyroid heart disease consists in management of

1 The hyperthyroid disease

2 The heart disease *per se*,

or

propylthiouracil

sedatives propylthiouracil and other measures employed for the hyperthyroidism. Quinidine and/or digitalis is indicated for the paroxysms of flutter, fibrillation and tachycardia if they become annoying. Digitalis and other measures already outlined are to be used when failure develops. Digitalis is much more effective than the use of sedatives. The patient should be classified in Functional Class I or at least in Class II before thyroidectomy is undertaken. Prolonged use of propylthiouracil may be necessary to effect the functional objective.

Hypothyroid Heart Disease

Hyperthyroidism

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- 1 The *increased metabolism* throughout the body increases the demand on the heart and circulation. This in turn increases cardiac work.
- 2 The *increased cellular metabolism* in the cardiac muscle probably also suffers from the toxic state influencing the entire body.

3

output and work.

The *pathologic pattern* of the cardiac lesion is not characteristic. It consists essentially of hypertrophy and dilatation with degenerative change which vary from the usual mild forms to necrosis of the myocardium in some instances.

The *clinical manifestations* include those manifestations due to the

- 1 Hyperthyroidism
- 2 Heart disease itself

The *cardiac manifestations* consist of palpitation, dyspnea on exertion and precordial discomfort. Paroxysms of auricular flutter, auricular fibrillation and tachycardia are frequent. These forms of tachycardia plus the concomitant sinus tachycardia are responsible for the palpitation. In addition the forceful vigorous pounding or beating of the heart produces palpitation. Angina pectoris is not uncommon.

Examination of the cardiovascular system will reveal sinus tachycardia, cardiac enlargement, functional mitral systolic murmur and vigorous pulsations of the visible arteries to be particularly prominent. The cardiac arrhythmias may be found. The blood pressure is characterized by a high systolic pressure due to the vigorous and rapid ejection of blood from the ventricles and a normal or low diastolic blood pressure due to reduced peripheral resistance from peripheral vascular dilatation. The pulse pressure is therefore high. The high pulse pressure may result in capillary pulsations, water hammer or Corrigan pulse and the other vascular signs encountered in aortic insufficiency. The symptoms and signs of left and right congestive heart failure develop when the cardiac reserve diminishes.

The diagnosis of hyperthyroid heart disease is not difficult. The presence of definite evidence of heart disease in a patient with hyperthyroidism with or without any other cause for heart disease establishes the diagnosis of hyperthyroid heart disease. The other etiologic agents for heart disease if present contribute in various ways to the cardiac status.

The diagnosis of hyperthyroidism is established by the presence of weight loss, definite increase in appetite, weakness, the cardiovascular manifestations mentioned previously, restlessness and excitability, fine tremor, sweating, warm, flushed and fine textured skin, the ophthalmic signs of Graves disease, goiter, systolic bruit over the thyroid, sensitiveness to heat, increase in the BMR, decrease in blood cholesterol concentration and an increased blood serum iodine (over 8 gamma per 100 cc). The rate of excretion in the urine and quantitative deposition in the thyroid gland of a tracer quantity test dose of I^{131} can be of considerable value in the diagnosis of hyper- and hypothyroidism. This must be done accurately to be reliable and useful.

The electrocardiogram is of considerable value in detection of myocardial damage. There are no characteristic electrocardiographic changes in the Q and P and T waves of high voltage. The study is important for detec-

tion of the disease. propylthiouracil or iodine is of great diagnostic importance iodine alone being employed infrequently today.

Rheumatic fever, essential hypertension, neurocirculatory asthenia and thyroid crisis are among the clinical states which are concerned in the

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Only those who suf-

to see a physician early enough or who have underlying associated cardiac disease should have an unfavorable prognosis.

Treatment. The treatment of hyperthyroid heart disease consists in management of

1. The heart

1. The heart
2. The thyroid gland
3. The heart

on subsequent surgery is sufficient to produce normal

sedatives

Quinidine and/or digitalis is indicated for the paroxysms of flutter-fibrillation and tachycardia if they become annoying. Digitalis and other measures already outlined for congestive heart failure are to be used when failure develops. The hyperthyroid patient often requires much more digitalis than the non-cardiac patient. It is advisable that the patient be classified in Functional Class I or at least in Class II before thyroidectomy is undertaken. Prolonged use of propylthiouracil may be necessary to effect the functional objective.

Hypothyroid Heart Disease

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Hypothyroid heart disease occurs at any age, being most frequent in the young and middle-aged adult. There is no relationship to sex except that more instances of postoperative hypothyroid heart disease occur in women since more women undergo thyroidectomy.

The *pathologic picture* is not characteristic. There is cardiac hypertrophy and dilatation with various degrees of muscular degeneration. The interstitial fluid is increased. There is also a great tendency for accumulation of pericardial fluid.

The *clinical manifestations* entail those of

- 1 Hypothyroidism
- 2 Heart disease

The *heart disease* is manifested by dyspnea, relatively slow pulse, functional systolic mitral murmur and cardiac enlargement. There may be manifestations of congestive heart failure if the disease has existed for a long time and the hypothyroidism is relatively pronounced. The *electrocardiogram* is fairly characteristic in that all complexes are of low amplitude, particularly the T waves. The roentgenographic study shows cardiac enlargement.

The *hypothyroidism* is manifested by impairment of appetite, gain in weight, mental and physical sluggishness, dry, thick and coarse skin and hair, yellowish pasty color to the skin, impairment of growth and thick tongue in the cretin, sensitiveness to cold, low BMR, high serum cholesterol, low bound blood kidney (less than 3 gamma per 100 cc). The I^{131} uptake by the thyroid gland and urinary excretion can be diagnostically useful if done well.

The *course* of the heart disease depends upon the severity and duration of the hypothyroidism. If the patient is treated early and adequately, the cardiac state is *reversible*. Sudden anginal failure with death may occur in a patient who is treated too rapidly with thyroid extract.

Treatment. The treatment of hypothyroid heart disease consists entirely in treatment of the hypothyroidism by thyroid extract. This is accomplished by the oral administration of $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ gram (15 to 30 mg) of thyroid extract daily to the patient initially, then increasing the dose over a period of four to six weeks. These patients should be watched carefully for and warned of anginal pain from too rapid thyroid extract therapy. If congestive heart failure exists, it should be treated as previously outlined, although digitalis is of little benefit in most instances.

CONGENITAL CARDIAC ANOMALIES

The congenital anomalies of the heart are relatively rare as a group, constituting 1 to 5 per cent (average about 2 per cent) of all types of organic heart disease in the United States. Individual abnormalities are exceedingly rare, there being only a few which may be considered relatively common. It is impossible to discuss all of the anomalies which have been described in the medical literature; only the salient features of the most common ones will be discussed briefly. Many of the congenital defects are

not important clinically since some are not compatible with postnatal life. Others are so mild as to have little influence on life expectancy or morbidity.

The cause of congenital abnormalities remains conjectural. Such factors as malnutrition, x-radiation, virus infection during pregnancy, alcoholism, drug addiction, syphilis, and age probably play a rôle in predisposing to disturbances in intrauterine development which leads to congenital defects. Their mechanism of action or even whether they act etiologically in some

constant to remember that the incidence

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er of pregnancy. Thus

pregnancy so high is

the incidence that abortion should be recommended if the mother has rubella during the first three months of pregnancy. The embryologic development of the heart and great vessels and the normal fetal and adult circulations should be reviewed by the student at this point.

The incidence of the various defects is shown in Table 13. The detailed clinical classification of congenital anomalies of the heart by Abbott may be consulted. Only the common defects are discussed.

TABLE 13—THE INCIDENCE OF THE MORE COMMON TYPES OF CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE (FROM ABBOTT'S 1000 PATIENTS)

	Per cent
Interatrial septal defect	35
Interventricular septal defects	25
Patent ductus arteriosus	21
Pulmonary stenosis	14
Anomalies of the semilunar valves	13
Coarctation of the aorta (adult type)	11
Anomalous origin of the great veins	1
Complete transposition of the arterial trunks	7

The clinical manifestations of congenital defects in general are the same as those in diseases previously described for the other etiologic types of heart disease. Certain phases of the clinical picture are fairly characteristic and important and are especially significant in diagnosis.

1. *Life.* Congenital defects begin in fetal life and therefore, with few exceptions, manifest themselves at birth. They are usually

examination a

is not frequently performed in early life. For this reason it is frequently difficult to date the cardiac disturbance to the period of fetal development.

2. *Cyanosis* is another important part of the clinical picture. Cyanosis occurs when there is enough reduced hemoglobin in the arterial blood to result in a bluish discoloration of the skin and mucous membranes.

of shunts and other defects that allow reduced hemoglobin to flow to the left side of the heart (Fig 147). Shunts which allow oxygenated hemoglobin to flow into reduced hemoglobin on the right side of the heart will not produce cyanosis (Fig 147).

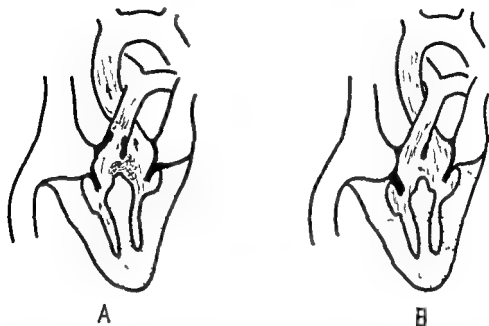


FIG 147—Illustration showing how uncomplicated patent interventricular septal defect *B* results in escape of blood from the left ventricle with higher pressure into the right ventricle with lower pressure. Since aerated blood enters the right side of the heart, *no cyanosis* results. In part *A*, an interventricular septal defect is complicated by pulmonary stenosis. When the stenosis is great enough to increase the pressure in the right ventricle above that in the left, then aerated blood escapes into the left side of the heart and flows into the general circulation. The percentage reduced hemoglobin in the circulation may be increased enough to produce *cyanosis*.

3 *Clubbing* The fingers and toes are clubbed in congenital heart disease if there is a long-standing disturbance in oxygenation of the blood or cyanosis.

4 *Growth* Any type of heart disease which involves a disturbance with circulation to the tissues results in impairment in tissue nutrition. Such alterations in metabolism when acquired in adult life do not manifest growth impairment, since growth has been completed. Congenital heart disease, however, occurs early in life when growth and body development are rapid. Impairment of the circulation and oxygen supply to the tissues retards or stops growth both mental and physical. Such impairment is usually *diffuse* and the degree of impairment is more or less directly related to the degree of insufficiency in circulation and oxygen supply. It may be limited to certain regions, however, in some types of coarctation.

5 *Murmurs* Congenital defects are somewhat peculiar and differ from acquired heart disease in that the murmurs tend to be highly developed and often are located outside the four clinical valvular areas, for

example patent ductus arteriosus and interventricular or interatrial septal defects. Some of these murmurs will be discussed more fully later.

(Electrocardiogram) The electrocardiogram as a rule is not characteristic of congenital heart disease. There are individual exceptions to this rule. For example the electrocardiographic pattern of situs inversus viscerum with dextrocardia is so characteristic that if properly recorded the anomaly can be detected by the electrocardiogram alone. Extreme right axis deviation is common and most highly developed in congenital heart disease.

7 Secondary Polycythemia This is present in anomalies in which the arterial hemoglobin is relatively low in oxygen resulting in a greater than normal rate of production of erythrocytes by the hemopoietic system. Other blood chemical changes such as in CO_2 , O_2 and pH occur when oxygen-poor hemoglobin is delivered to the tissues.

8 Cardiac Catheterization Most patients with congenital cardiac anomalies who live long enough to require clinical study for a detailed diagnosis and for possible surgical therapy usually can obtain an accurate complete diagnosis without catheterization studies. When however diagnosis is difficult due to peculiarities in the clinical picture or to satisfy the patient and physician more definitely cardiac catheterization may be conducted. It is important to remember that such studies offer danger, expense and psychic trauma to many people and therefore should be performed only when definitely indicated. Many more people are catheterized than is necessary.

Nevertheless because catheterization is becoming more popular and because of increasing interest in cardiac surgery for treatment of congenital anomalies of the heart it is advisable to review briefly the type of data obtainable by cardiac catheterization and to point out some of the principles employed by such studies. This is a highly specialized type of examination and therefore is developed fully in this presentation.

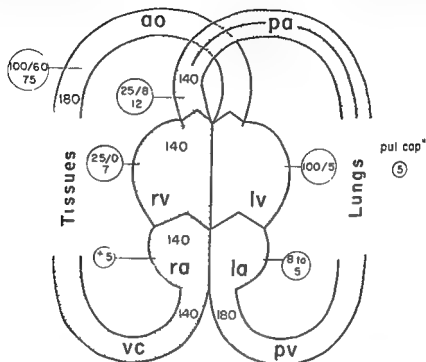
Cardiac catheterization is employed clinically to provide the following data:

- a Values of pressure in the great vessels of the heart and the cardiac chambers that can be entered by the catheter
- b Values of the O_2 content and percentage O_2 saturation of the blood content in the great vessels of the heart and the chambers

c The position of the catheter in the chambers is obtained either by roentgenographic recording of the position of the radiopaque catheter or by injection of radiopaque material or by both. Fluoroscopy, teleroentgenography and/or cinefluoroscopy are employed in angiocardiology.

From these data it is possible to estimate

The average values of pressures and oxygen content of the blood in the great vessels and chambers of the normal child are shown diagrammatically by Figure 148 and in the normal adult by Figure 149. The conventional diagram is employed in all these illustrations. The variations in the values and angiocardigraphic data which occur from infancy to old age can be obtained from the literature. The application of catheterization



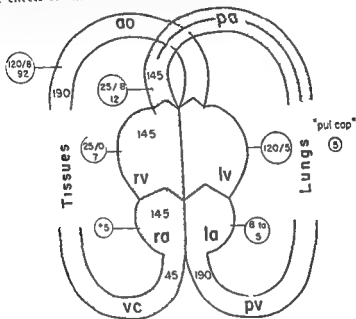
Oxygen consumption at rest 100 cc/min

FIG 148 Diagrammatic representation of normal pressures and contents of oxygen in the blood of the heart and great vessels of the *normal child*. In this illustration and all similar ones to follow the values enclosed in circles represent blood pressure, the mean values being shown below the respective systolic and diastolic values. The values for oxygen content (expressed in cubic centimeters of oxygen contained in one liter of whole blood) are indicated within the respective cardiac chambers and vessels. The value for pulmonary capillary pressure is the pressure obtained after firmly forcing the artery which is then arbitrarily called pulmonary oxygen consumption is indicated at the bottom of

to the diagnosis of selected congenital defects is presented later. It is possible from the discussion of these defects to learn the general principles of catheterization as applied to congenital cardiac anomalies.

The methods and apparatus employed in catheterization studies are relatively crude and are subject to error from many sources. The method for measuring the O_2 content in a sample of blood is sufficiently accurate for clinical purposes to offer no serious difficulties provided the technique is

ties of the apparatus itself. The poor physical characteristics is a tube for transmitting pressure to a pressure recorder outside the patient. New recorders with the pick up unit placed directly within the heart are being developed. For most clinical purposes the pressures recorded are usually sufficiently accurate for diagnostic purposes. The main difficulties are physiologic ones which occur within the patient himself and which are difficult to control. These include effects of anesthesia on the circulation, failure of the patient to



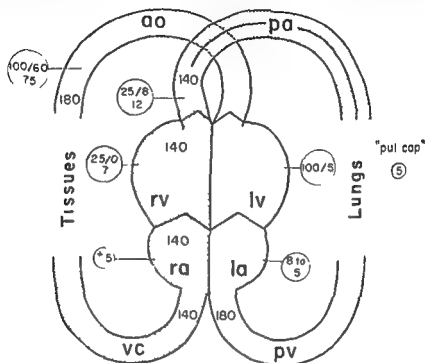
Oxygen consumption at rest - 185 cc./min.

11-141-11 pressures and contents of oxygen in the blood of the normal adult

relax during studies or to relax equally on repeated studies, and failure of blood to mix adequately within the great vessels and chambers of the heart. The latter offer particular difficulties. Because of the aforementioned problems the physician should never accept without considerable reservation absolute values of pressure, O₂ content or O₂ saturation of blood, calculations of the sizes of shunts and the like. Only general trends of values and their correlation with the basic clinical data should be employed if good cardiologic diagnosis and management are to be achieved.

Cardiac catheterization performed by way of the venous system is relatively safe, whereas by way of the arteries it is dangerous and should be limited to special problems only.

The average values of pressures and oxygen content of the blood in the great vessels and chambers of the normal child are shown diagrammatically by Figure 148 and in the normal adult by Figure 149. The conventional diagram is employed in all these illustrations. The variations in these values and angiocardigraphic data which occur from infancy to old age can be obtained from the literature. The application of catheterization



Oxygen consumption at rest = 100 cc/min

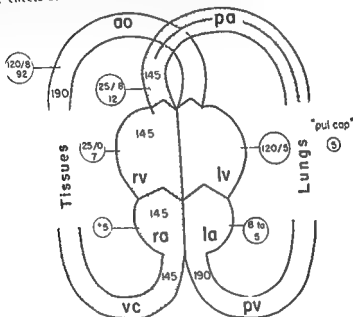
FIG. 148 — Diagrammatic representation of normal pressures and contents of oxygen

for oxygen content, expressed in cubic centimeters of oxygen contained in one unit of whole blood, are indicated within the respective cardiac chambers and vessels. The value for 'pulmonary capillary' pressure is the pressure obtained after firmly forcing the catheter into a small pulmonary artery which is then arbitrarily called 'pulmonary capillary' pressure. The rate of oxygen consumption is indicated at the bottom of each such illustration.

to the diagnosis of selected congenital defects is presented later. It is these defects to learn the general principles of congenital cardiac anomalies.

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placed directly within the ... to a pressure ... k-up unit ... ost clinical ... purposes the pressures recorded are usually sufficiently accurate for diagnostic purposes. The main difficulties are physiologic ones which occur within the patient himself and which are difficult to control. These include effects of anesthesia on the circulation, failure of the patient to



Oxygen consumption at rest = 185 cc./min

11. 11. 11 pressures at different points of oxygen in the blood of the normal adult

relax during studies or to relax equally on repeated studies and failure of blood to mix adequately within the great vessels and chambers of the heart. The latter offer particular difficulties. Because of the aforementioned problems, the physician should never accept without considerable reservation absolute values of pressure, O_2 content or O_2 saturation of blood, calculations of the sizes of shunts and the like. Only general trends of values and their correlation with the basic clinical data should be employed if good cardiologic diagnosis and management are to be achieved.

Cardiac catheterization performed by way of the venous system is relatively safe, whereas by way of the arteries it is dangerous and should be limited to special problems only.

Anomalous Shunts

From data of O_2 content and consumption by the tissues it is possible not only to determine types of anomalous shunts but also to estimate the size of shunts in terms of blood flow through the openings. Beginners often have difficulty understanding these calculations due usually to failure to learn the simple principles involved. These principles of calculating shunts will be briefly reviewed. Certain simple formulae are employed in the calculations which can be no more accurate than the data employed in them. Remember that the data are often highly inaccurate as previously indicated. The excellent work of Cournand and his associates in the development of the method of cardiac catheterization is acknowledged. Most of the ideas and data presented below originate from them.

Symbols: O_2 concentration in the sampled blood is expressed in cubic centimeters per liter of blood. This includes oxygen dissolved in the blood as well as that combined with hemoglobin.

C_{ao} = O_2 concentration in the aorta and peripheral arteries

C_{lv} = O_2 concentration in the left ventricle

C_{rv} = O_2 concentration in the right ventricle

C_{la} = O_2 concentration in the left atrium

C_{lv} = O_2 concentration in the pulmonary vein

C_{sv} = O_2 concentration in the superior vena cava

C_{iv} = O_2 concentration in the inferior vena cava

$C_v = \frac{C_{sv} + C_{iv}}{2}$ This empiric value is subject to error if C_{sv} and

C_{iv} are not equal because more blood flows through the inferior vena cava than through the superior vena cava.

O_2 = Oxygen consumption in cubic centimeters per minute

BI_s = Systemic blood flow in liters per minute

BI_p = Pulmonary artery blood flow in liters per minute

BI_{pc} = Pulmonary capillary blood flow in liters per minute

SR = Shunt right to left in liters per minute

SL = Shunt left to right in liters per minute

SI = Shunt of blood from pulmonary veins or left atrium into right atrium

SI = Shunt from left to right ventricle

SI = Shunt from aorta into pulmonary artery

R = Regurgitated blood in liters per minute

Systemic blood flow is obtained from the equation

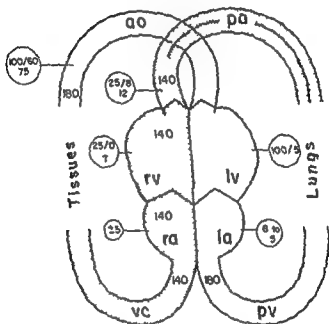
$$BI_s = \frac{O_2}{C_{ao} - C_{ra}} = \frac{O_2}{C_{ao} - C_v} \quad (1)$$

For example, if a patient consumes 100 cc of O_2 per minute and the arterial O_2 concentration is 180 cc of O_2 per liter of blood and the right atrial blood concentration is 140 cc (Figure 150) then the systemic blood flow is

$$BI_s = \frac{100}{180 - 140} = 2.5 \text{ liters per minute}$$

Thus 100 cc of O₂ is being absorbed in the lungs per minute and if the patient is resting and is in a steady state he is using 100 cc per minute in the tissues. If each liter of blood passing through the tissues delivers 40 cc (150 - 140) then $\frac{100}{40}$ or 2.5 liters must have circulated through the

This is the
represents
If the state



Oxygen consumption at rest = 100 cc/min

Ex. 150 The pressures in the arteries of oxygen in the blood of a normal child obtained by arterial catheterization. Calculate the test for the method of employing these values for finding the output of the left ventricle.

If the circulation is normal then the output of the right ventricle is the same as the output of the left ventricle. The blood flow through the pulmonary capillaries

$$Q_{LV} = \frac{V_{O_2}}{C_a - C_{pa}}$$

For example, if the O_2 consumption is 100 cc. per minute and the O_2 concentration in the left atrium is 180 and in the pulmonary artery 140 cc. per liter (Figure 151) then

$$BI_p = \frac{100}{180 - 140} = 2.5 \text{ liters per minute}$$

Left to Right Intracardiac Shunt

a. C_{ra} is greater than C_{vc} . When the concentration of oxygen in the right atrial blood is greater than that in the venous blood then the following defects may exist

(1) Shunting of blood from the left atrium into the right atrium
- Ventricular defect

(2)

(3)

through an interventricular septal defect
cuspid valvular regurgitation

(4) Any combination of the foregoing is possible

The degree of left to-right shunt may be determined from the equation

$$SI = BF_s \left(\frac{C_{ra} - C_{vc}}{C_{ao} - C_{va}} \right) \quad (1)$$

For example if catheterization studies revealed it shown in Figure 152 then

$$SI = BF_s \left(\frac{100 - 60}{130 - 100} \right)$$

$$BF_s = \frac{40}{130 - 60} = 0.57 \text{ liter per minute}$$

$$SI = 0.57 \left(\frac{100 - 60}{130 - 100} \right) = 0.57 \left(\frac{40}{30} \right) = 0.76 \text{ liter per minute}$$

Thus it is evident from the calculation and Figure 152 that each liter of blood entering the right atrium from the left atrium contains 10 cc of O_2 - when mixed in the right atrium - per liter of blood. Note on of 40 cc O_2 per liter

Therefore to bring one liter of blood with 60 cc concentration to 100 cc 40 cc O_2 must be added. Since each liter of blood from the left atrium adds 30 cc it would require $\frac{40}{30}$ or 1.33 liters of the 130 cc blood to do this. But the cardiac output is only 0.57 liter i.e. only 0.57 liter of blood with 60 cc per liter of O_2 is entering the right atrium per minute which is to be increased to 100 cc O_2 saturation. Therefore it would require only 0.57×1.33 liter or 0.76 liters of the 130 cc blood from the left atrium to accomplish the change.

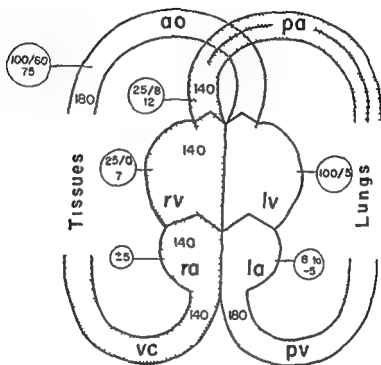
The degree of the shunt could also be obtained from a measurement of the difference between the cardiac outputs of the two ventricles.

$$BF_p = \frac{40}{130 - 100} = 1.33 \text{ liters}$$

$$SI = BF_p - BF_s = 1.33 - 0.57 = 0.76 \text{ liter per minute}$$

For example, if the O_2 consumption is 100 cc per minute and the O_2 concentration in the left atrium is 180 and in the pulmonary artery 140 cc per liter (Figure 151) then

$$BF_r = \frac{100}{180 - 140} = 2.5 \text{ liters per minute}$$



Oxygen consumption at rest = 100 cc/min

FIG. 151. The pressures and content of oxygen in the blood of a normal child obtained by cardiac catheterization. Consult the text for the method of employing these values for calculation of the output of the right ventricle.

Thus, 100 cc of O_2 is added to the blood flowing through the lungs is determined by measurement of the O_2 consumed by the patient over a known period of time. Furthermore it is known that each liter of blood passing through the lungs contains 140 cc of O_2 and after passage it contains 180 cc of O_2 ; i.e. each liter gathers 40 cc of O_2 . But 100 cc of O_2 is gathered per minute therefore $\frac{100}{40}$ or 2.5 liters must have circulated through the lungs to accomplish this (Figure 151).

Left to Right Intracardiac Shunt

... the concentration of oxygen in the right

through an interatrial septum

- (2) Shunting of blood from an aberrant pulmonary vein which empties into the right atrium
- (3) Shunting of blood from the left ventricle into the right ventricle associated with tri

(4)

The degree of left to right shunt may be determined from the equation

$$SI = BF_r \left(\frac{C_{ra} - C_{rv}}{C_{la} - C_{rv}} \right) \quad (3)$$

For example, if catheterization studies reveal data shown in Figure 1-12 then

$$SI = BF_r \left(\frac{100 - 60}{130 - 100} \right)$$

$$BF_r = \frac{40}{130 - 100} = 0.57 \text{ liter per minute}$$

$$SI = 0.57 \left(\frac{100 - 60}{130 - 100} \right) = 0.57 \left(\frac{40}{30} \right) = 0.76 \text{ liter per minute}$$

Thus, it is evident from the calculation and Figure 1-12 that each liter of blood entering the right atrium from the left atrium contains 130 cc O_2 . It is reduced to 100 cc O_2 saturation per liter when mixed in the right atrium that is there is a decline or loss of 30 cc per liter of blood. Note that it is mixing with blood with a concentration of 60 cc O_2 per liter. *Proportionate* 60 cc concentration to 100 cc of blood from the left atrium

it would require $\frac{40}{30}$ or 1.33 liters of the 130 cc blood to do this

If the cardiac output is only 0.57 liter per minute only 0.57 liter of blood with 60 cc per liter of O_2 entering the right atrium per minute which is to be increased to 100 cc O_2 saturation. Therefore it would require only 0.57×1.33 liter or 0.76 liters of the 130 cc blood from the left atrium to accomplish the change.

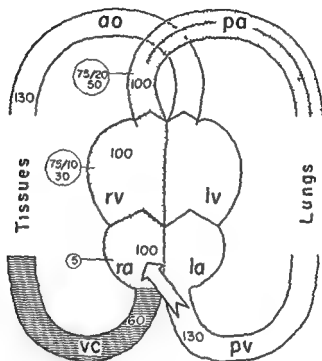
The degree of the shunt could also be obtained from a measurement of the difference between the cardiac outputs of the two ventricles

$$BF_r = \frac{40}{130 - 100} = 1.33 \text{ liters}$$

$$SI = BF_r - BF_s = 1.33 - 0.57 = 0.76 \text{ liter per minute}$$

b C_{rv} is greater than C_{ra} for this to occur blood must be shunting into the right ventricle from the left ventricle mixing with the blood of lower O_2 concentration entering the right ventricle from the right atrium. The size of the shunt is calculated from the equation

$$SI' = BLa \left(\frac{C_{rv} - C_{ra}}{C_{rv} - C_{rv}'} \right) \quad (4)$$



Oxygen consumption at rest = 40 cc/min

FIG. 152—Pressures and contents of oxygen in the blood of a child with a transposition of the large vessels.

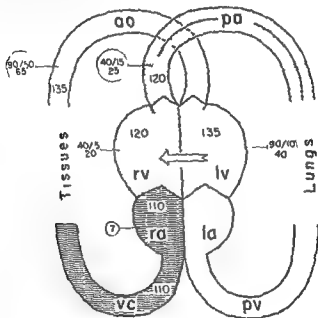
For example, from data obtained by cardiac catheterization and summarized by Figure 153 the amount of blood shunting through the inter-ventricular defect is

$$SI' = 3.4 \left(\frac{120 - 110}{135 - 120} \right) = 2.24 \text{ liters per minute}$$

$$\text{where } BLa = \frac{80}{135 - 110} = 3.4 \text{ liters}$$

Thus from equation (4) if blood from the left ventricle containing 135 cc O_2 per liter mixes with one liter of blood from the right ventricle con-

taining 110 cc O_2 per liter to produce blood containing 120 cc O_2 per liter then the 135 cc O_2 per liter blood would be reduced 15 cc for each liter of right ventricular blood raised from 110 to 120 cc O_2 per liter, that is enough blood from the left ventricle must enter the right ventricle to add 15 cc O_2 to each liter of blood in the right ventricle. Thus 10×1 or 0.66 liter of blood must be added to each liter of the 110 cc O_2 blood in the left ventricle. But 3.4 liters of blood flows through the right ventricle per minute, therefore, 0.66×3.4 or 2.2 liters must shunt from the left ventricle into the right one.



Oxygen consumption at rest 85 cc/min

Fig. 153 Pressure and content of oxygen in the heart of a child with a ventricular septal defect

The volume of the shunt may also be calculated from the difference between the right and left ventricular outputs that is

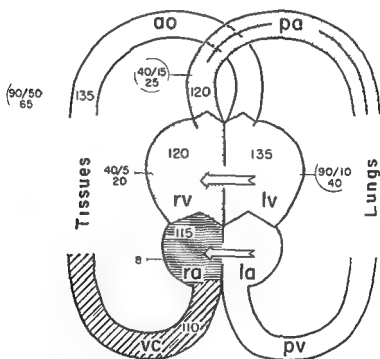
$$Q_L = BF_r - BF_s = 5.6 - 3.4 = 2.2 \text{ liters per minute}$$

C_{rv} is greater than C_{ra} and C_{ra} is greater than C_v . For the O_2 content of blood from the right ventricle (C_{rv}) to be greater than that of blood from the venae cavae (C_v) oxygenated blood must shunt into the right ventricle from the left atrium or in aberrant pulmonary vein. Further-

more, for the O₂ content of the blood in the right ventricle (C_{rv}) to be greater than that in the right atrium (C_{ra}) blood must also shunt from the left side of the heart, left ventricle into the right side—right ventricle. Therefore, there must be two left-to-right shunts. An interventricular septal defect with tricuspid regurgitation could produce the foregoing conditions.

$$SI = (BI + SI') \left(\frac{C_{rv} - C_{ra}}{C_{lv} - C_{rv}} \right) \quad (1)$$

For example, from the data shown in Figure 154 the amount of blood shunting through an interventricular shunt is obtained as follows:



Oxygen consumption at rest 85 cc/min

FIG. 154—Pressure and contents of oxygen in the blood of a child with both atrial and ventricular septal defects

$$BI = \frac{85}{135 - 110} = 3.4 \text{ liters per minute}$$

$$SI' = BI \left(\frac{C_{ra} - C_{rv}}{C_{la} - C_{ra}} \right) = 3.4 \left(\frac{115 - 110}{135 - 115} \right) = 0.85 \text{ liters per minute}$$

Then

$$SI = (14 + 0.50) \left(\frac{C_{115} - C_{120}}{C_{115} - C_{120}} \right) = 4.2 \left(\frac{120 - 115}{115 - 120} \right) = 14 \text{ liters per minute}$$

The explanation of the mathematics is as follows: Blood from the venae cavae containing 110 cc O_2 per liter enters the right atrium. To this blood is added blood from the left atrium which increases its O_2 content to 115 cc per liter. Therefore from this it is possible to calculate the left-to-right shunt at the atrial level (SI) by the same reasoning applied to equation (3). Once the volume of this shunt is known and the systemic blood (BF_s) is obtained from equation (1) it is possible to know the volume of blood that enters the right ventricle. This is $BF_s + SI$. Furthermore it is known that blood with 115 cc O_2 per liter enters the right ventricle, and its O_2 content is raised to 120 cc per liter. From these data it is then possible to calculate the shunt.

the size of combinations of shunts

If C_{pa} is greater than C_{rv} and C_{rv} is greater than C_{ra} . The condition in which the O_2 concentration of the blood is (1) greater in the pulmonary artery than in the right ventricle and (2) greater in the right ventricle than in the right atrium, usually due to

- (1) C_{pa} is greater than C_{rv} due to shunting of blood from the aorta into the pulmonary artery because of either (a) patent ductus arteriosus or (b) patency of the septum between the pulmonary artery and the aorta. This permits oxygenated blood to enter the pulmonary artery and cause C_{pa} to exceed C_{rv} and
- (2) C_{rv} is greater than C_{ra} due to either (i) shunting of blood from the left ventricle through a patency in the interventricular septum into the right ventricle (b) pulmonary valvular insufficiency with regurgitation of the more highly oxygenated blood from the pulmonary artery into the right ventricle or (c) both these conditions.

The volume of the shunt from the aorta into the pulmonary artery is obtained from the equation

$$SI = (BF_s + SI) \left(\frac{C_{pa} - C_{rv}}{C_{pa} - C_{ra}} \right) \quad (6)$$

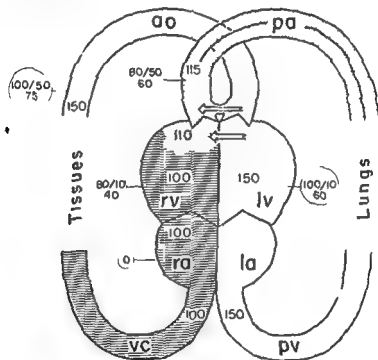
For example:

As in the preceding illustration and in the solution of equation (5), this equation must be approached in steps and in the proper order, according to the same line of reasoning as was applied to the previous equations and solutions.

For example if the condition shown in Figure 155 is to be solved for the shunting through the patent ductus arteriosus the solution would be

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q_1' &= \left[\left(\frac{O_2}{C_{ao} - C_{ra}} \right) + \left(\frac{O_2}{C_{ao} - C_{ra}} \right) \left(\frac{C_{rv} - C_{ra}}{C_{lv} - C_{rv}} \right) \right] \left(\frac{C_{pa} - C_{rv}}{C_{ao} - C_{pa}} \right) \quad (7) \\
 &= \left[\left(\frac{100}{150 - 100} \right) + \left(\frac{100}{150 - 100} \right) \left(\frac{110 - 100}{150 - 110} \right) \right] \left(\frac{115 - 110}{150 - 115} \right) \\
 &= [2 + 2(0.2)] 0.14 = 2.5 \times 0.14 = 0.35 \text{ liters per minute}
 \end{aligned}$$

The interventricular shunt is 0.5 liter per minute, which is obtained from the second fraction in equation (7)



Oxygen consumption at rest = 100 cc/min

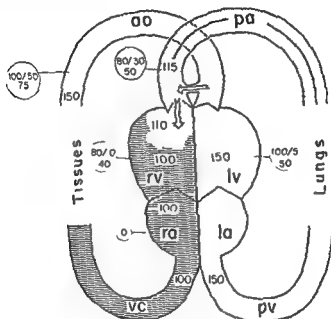
FIG. 155 — Pressures and contents of oxygen at the heart of a child with both ventricular septal defect and patent ductus arteriosus

c. If the O_2 content of the blood in the right ventricle were due to regurgitation of blood through an incompetent pulmonary valve then the size of the regurgitation R could be derived from the equation

$$R = BF_s \left(\frac{C_{rv} - C_{ra}}{C_{pa} - C_{rv}} \right) \quad (8)$$

Then for the example above there is patent ductus arteriosus and no ventricular septal defect but pulmonic valvular insufficiency (Figure 156) the degree of the insufficiency being

$$R = 2 \left(\frac{110 - 100}{115 - 110} \right) = 2 \times 2 = 4 \text{ liters per minute}$$



Oxygen consumption at rest = 100 cc/min

Fig. 156. Pressures and contents of oxygen in the blood of a child with both patent ductus arteriosus and pulmonic valvular incompetency.

Right to Left Intracardiac Shunt

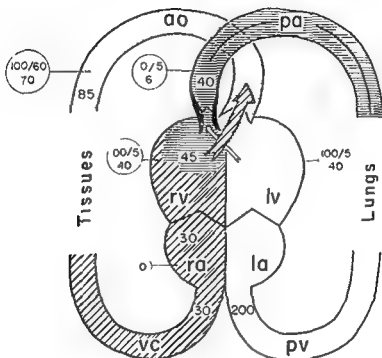
When this occurs the oxygen content of the blood which should be adequate is low. This type of shunting could occur by the passage of blood from the right atrium through an anatomic overture or anatomic overture.

seen with tetralogy of Fallot. The degree of right to-left shunting of blood can be calculated by the equation

$$SR = BI \left(\frac{C_{la} - C_{ao}}{C_{la} - C_{vr}} \right) \quad (9)$$

For example if the values shown in Figure 157 are employed the degree of right to left shunt i.e. the amount of blood which is shunted directly into the left side of the heart in the case of tetralogy of Fallot is

$$SR = \frac{110}{85 - 30} \left(\frac{200 - 55}{200 - 30} \right) = 1.4 \text{ liters per minute}$$



Oxygen consumption at rest = 110 cc/min

FIG. 157.—Diagram illustrating the flow of blood in the heart with tetralogy of Fallot.

This is evident from the following argument. The oxygen in the blood shunted through the ventricular defect into the aorta is SR (30) the oxygen entering the aorta from the left ventricle is $(BI_s - SR)200$ and therefore the oxygen entering the aorta from both ventricles is $(BI_s - SR + SR)85$

Thus

$$85 (BI_s - SR + SR) = 30SR + 200 (BI_s - SR)$$

$$SR (200 - 30) = BI_s (200 - 85)$$

$$\text{or } SR = BI_s \left(\frac{200 - 85}{200 - 30} \right)$$

That the preceding calculation is correct is evident from the following argument. In all of these studies it is assumed that the oxygen used in the tissue per minute is equal to the oxygen absorbed from the lungs per minute i.e.

$$\text{Oxygen from lungs} = \text{oxygen to tissues} \quad (a)$$

The volume of O₂ delivered to the tissues per minute is $BI_s(C_{ao} - C_{ve})$ and the oxygen absorbed from the lungs is $(BF_s - SR)(C_{la} - C_{pa})$ where the volume of blood flow to the lungs is equal to the systemic blood flow minus the volume of the shunt. Therefore, substituting in equation (1)

$$BI_s(C_{ao} - C_{ve}) = (BF_s - SR)(C_{la} - C_{pa}) \quad (b)$$

By multiplying and changing signs

$$-BF_s(C_{ao} - C_{ve}) + BF_s(C_{la} - C_{pa}) = SR(C_{la} - C_{pa})$$

$$SR = BI_s \left(\frac{C_{la} + C_{ve} - C_{ao} - C_{pa}}{C_{la} - C_{pa}} \right) \quad (c)$$

Since $C_{ve} = C_{pa}$ then

$$SR = BI_s \left(\frac{C_{la} - C_{ao}}{C_{la} - C_{ve}} \right) \quad (d)$$

Thus it is evident that the general equation is correct.

It is not possible nor need vary in this presentation to discuss in detail the methods for calculating shunts through congenital defects. Other equations have been advanced and more complex multiple defects can exist which are available in the medical literature.

Specific Cardiac Defects

Certain of the more common congenital cardiac lesions will be discussed primarily from the point of view of the clinical manifestations at the bedside. Typical findings on cardiac catheterizations will be briefly summarized indicating the changes in (1) pressure relationships and (2) O₂ content of the blood. The degree of shunting will be ignored since absolute values are not presented.

The incidence of congenital heart disease may be estimated from the study of 200 patients by Paul Wood (Table 14). Roughly tetralogy of Fallot and atrial septal defect each represent about 20 per cent or one-fifth of the congenital cardiac anomalies. The incidence of patent ductus arteriosus is about 10 per cent ventricular.

four fifths

TABLE 14 —INCIDENCE OF TRUE CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

<i>Type of Lesion</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Acyanotic	
Coarctation of the aorta	8
Aortic or subaortic stenosis	3
Simple pulmonary stenosis (4 with VSD)	11.5
Atrial septal defect	17.5
Ventricular septal defect (excluding 4 with pulmonary stenosis)	12
Patent ductus arteriosus	14.5
Cyanotic	
Fallot's tetralogy (including 4 with pulmonary atresia)	18
Pulmonary stenosis with reversed interatrial shunt	2.5
Tricuspid atresia	1
Eisenmenger's complex	1
Transposition of the great vessels	1
Others	8
TOTAL	100

Modified from Wood & Paul Brit Med J 2 540 1950

TABLE 15 —CLASSIFICATION OF CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

<i>General</i>	<i>No Shunt</i>	<i>Right-sided</i>
Dextrocardia	Coarctation of the aorta	Idiopathic dilatation of the pulmonary artery
Idiopathic hypertrophy	Right-sided aortic arch	Simple pulmonary stenosis (with or without patent foramen)
Von Gierke's disease	Complete or incomplete aortic rings	Eisenmenger's disease
Heart block	Bicuspid aortic valve (or supernumerary cusps)	
Familial cardiomyopathy	Aortic or subaortic stenosis	
	Left coronary artery arising from pulmonary artery	
	With Shunt	Cyanotic
Axial		Right-to-left Shunt
Left-to-right Shunt (Pulmonary Plethora)		Diminished pulmonary blood flow
Left ventricular enlargement		Low P A pressure
Patent ductus		1 Left ventricular enlargement
Ventricular septal defect (with or without mild pulmonary stenosis)		Tricuspid atresia
Perforated aortic sinus into P A or R V (or R A)		2 Right ventricular hypertrophy
Right ventricular enlargement		Fallot's tetralogy
Atrial septal defect (with or without mild pulmonary stenosis)		Pulmonary atresia (Fallot type)
Anomalous pulmonary veins joining SVC or R V		Persistent truncus
		Pulmonary stenosis with reversed interatrial shunt
		High P A pressure
		Eisenmenger's complex
		Pulmonary hypertension with reversed aorto-pulmonary interatrial or interatrial shunt
		Pulmonary plethora
		Transposition

Modified from Wood & Paul Congenital Heart Disease Brit Med J 2 548 1950

Auricular Septal Defects

One of the most frequent of all cardiac anomalies is patency of the interauricular septum which occurs in about 20 per cent of all congenital cardiac anomalies. The most frequent type is *patency of the foramen ovale*. A small opening of the foramen is found in 12 to 25 per cent of all autopsies. In many instances the opening is too small to produce an audible murmur or sufficient disturbances in hemodynamics to reveal even the slightest clinical evidence of the defect. From a practical clinical point of view this is of no importance.

An *auricular septal defect* on the other hand, is of clinical importance, since it produces at least a murmur and in many instances when large, considerable disturbance in hemodynamics. In this type of defect an

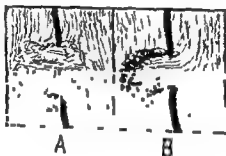


FIG. 158.—Diagram 4 shows how the blood from both a lot of blood

is the type of defect of roughly does not produce evidence

of normally large amount of blood enters the right atrium from the left. This increases the load on the right ventricle. Blood flows from the left atrium to the right because the pressure is greater in the left atrium. The fact that the left atrium is above or superior to the right one may account in part for this difference in pressure. In the average patient with a relatively small opening there is no evidence as oxygenated blood flows into the right side along with reduced hemoglobin. With a large opening, the mixing and by large of

There is a loud systolic murmur over the upper part of the chest. The peripheral pulse is normal or small. The precordium may bulge slightly, and the precordium seems to lift or move forward with the heart beat. This is due to the right ventricular enlargement especially of the outflow tract. With enlargement of the left ventricle, the precordium seems to

<i>Type of Lesion</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Acyanotic	
Coarctation of the aorta	8
Aortic or subaortic stenosis	3
Simple pulmonary stenosis (1 with V S D)	11.5
Atrial septal defect	17.5
Ventricular septal defect (excluding 1 with pulmonary stenosis)	12
Patent ductus arteriosus	14.5
Cyanotic	
Fallot's tetralogy (including 3 with pulmonary atresia)	18
Pulmonary stenosis with reversed interatrial shunt	2.5
Tricuspid atresia	3
Eisenmenger's complex	1
Transposition of the great vessels	1
Others	■
TOTAL	100

Modified from Wood, Paul. Brit. Med. J. 2: 540, 1950.

TABLE 15—CLASSIFICATION OF CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

<i>General</i>	<i>No Shunt</i>	<i>Right-sided</i>
Dextrocardia	Coarctation of the aorta	Idiopathic dilatation of the pulmonary artery
Idiopathic hypertrophy	Right-sided aortic arch	Simple pulmonary stenosis
Von Gierke's disease	Complete or incomplete aortic rings	(with or without patent FO)
Heart block	Bicuspid aortic valve (or supernumerary cusps)	Fistula's disease
Familial cardiomegaly	Aortic or subaortic stenosis	
	Left coronary artery arising from pulmonary artery	
	With Shunt	
Left-to-right Shunt (Pulmonary Plthora)		Cyanotic
Left ventricular enlargement		Right-to-left Shunt
Patent ductus		Diminished pulmonary blood flow
Ventricular septal defect (with or without mild pulmonary stenosis)		Low P A pressure
Perforated aortic sinus into P A or R A (or R A)		1 Left ventricular enlargement
Right ventricular enlargement		Tricuspid atresia
Atrial septal defect (with or without mild pulmonary stenosis)		2 Right ventricular hypertrophy
Anomalous pulmonary veins joining S V C or R A		Fallot's tetralogy
		Pulmonary atresia (Fallot type)
		Persistent truncus
		Pulmonary stenosis with reversed interatrial shunt
		High P A pressure
		Eisenmenger's complex
		Pulmonary hypertension with reversed aorto-pulmonary interatrial or interatrial shunt
		Pulmonary phthoria
		Transposition

Modified from Wood, Paul. Congenital Heart Disease. Brit. Med. J. 4: 698, 1950.

TABLE 17—(Continued)

Pulmonary Flow Less than Systemic Flow Pulmonary Artery Pressure Usually Decreased

Fluoroscopic Findings

	Lung Fields	Size and Shape of Heart	Pulmonary Vascularity	Pulmonary Segment	Electrical Preparation
Totalogy of Fallot	Clear	Enlarged apex not enlarged (coronary shadow)	Clear	Concave	Right
	Clear	Enlarged and boot-shaped	Clear	Concave	Right
	Clear	Concavity of lower right border in P.A. projection (coronary shadow)	Clear	Concave	Left
Pseudothorax					
Transposed Atria					
Transposition of the Great Vessels with Pulmonary Stenosis	Clear	Enlarged, narrow mediastinal shadow in A.P. and lateral positions	Hazy	Concave	Combined Heart Brain
	Clear	Enlarged	Hazy	Concave	Right or Left with bundle branch block
Islet's Disease with Patent Foramen Ovale					
Pulmonary Arterio-venous Fistula Patent Foramen Ovale or Auricular Septal Defect with Pulmonary Stenosis	Round Opacities	Enlarged or normal	Hazy	Concave	Right
	Clear	Slightly enlarged	Hazy	Concave	Right
Pulmonary Flow Greater than Systemic Flow and or Pulmonary Artery Pressure Normal or Increased					
	Vascular	Enlarged	Hazy	Concave	Right
Ischemic heart					
Complete Transposition	Vascular	Enlarged, narrow mediastinal shadow in A.P., widening in lateral view, absence of aortic knob	Hazy	Concave	Right
	Vascular	Enlarged	Hazy	Concave	Right
Patent Ductus Arteriosus with Reversed Flow					
Truncus Arteriosus	Vascular	Enlarged and boot-shaped	Clear	Concave	Left or right

Courtesy of Dr. Richard Bing

TABLE III — NON CYANOTIC

Pulmonary Flow Greater than Systemic Flow and/or Pulmonary Artery Pressure Normal or Increased

Fluoroscopic Findings

<i>Diagnosis</i>	<i>Lung Fields</i>	<i>Size and Shape of Heart</i>	<i>Pulmonary Window</i>	<i>Pulmonary Segment</i>	<i>Electrical Preponderance</i>
Isolated Septal Defect	Isular	Enlarged	Hazy	Convex	Right
Uncomplicated Interventricular	Isular	Enlarged	Hazy	Very Prominent	Right
Ventricular Septal Defect	Isular	Usually enlarged	Hazy	Convex	Left or right
Patent Ductus Arteriosus	Isular	Enlarged	Hazy	Convex	Normal or Left
Aortic Septal Defect	Isular	Enlarged	Hazy	Convex	Normal or Left
Anomalous Venous Return with Pulmonary Vein Emptying into Vena Cava or Right Atricle	Isular	Enlarged	Hazy	Convex	Right
Pure Pulmonic Stenosis	Clear	Enlarged	Hazy	Prominent	Right

Pulmonary Flow Equals Systemic Flow at Rest and After Exercise

Courtesy of Dr. Richard Bing

- c The left ventricular impulse is more used and there is lifting of the precordium produced by the enlarged right ventricular outflow tract
 - d Palpation of the pulmonary artery is felt
 - e A systolic murmur (Roger's murmur) most intense just to the left of the sternum at the level of the fourth intercostal space (Roger's area) is fairly characteristic. A thrill is usually associated with the murmur
 - f The pulmonary second sound is split with the second or pulmonary portion accentuated
 - g A functional mitral diastolic murmur may be present. Functional pulmonary valvular insufficiency with a pulmonary diastolic murmur may be noted
- 4 The roentgenographic studies reveal a large pulmonary cone, large left ventricle and pulmonary plethora. The findings are essentially the same as for patent ductus arteriosus.
- a The electrocardiogram may show evidence of right ventricular enlargement. Right bundle branch block complete or incomplete may be present. With small defects the electrocardiogram may be normal.
 - b Cardiac catheterization reveals an increase in O_2 content of the blood found in the right ventricle and pulmonary artery. The pressure in this ventricular and pulmonary artery is increased. The shunt can be calculated as previously indicated. The catheter may be passed into the left ventricle, which definitely establishes the abnormal opening.
 - c Angiocardiography does not show the patent septum because blood is flowing from left to right.
 - d Life is shortened if the opening is large but is not necessarily affected by a small opening.

Patent Ductus Arteriosus

Surgical intervention has made this defect reversible.

1 *Incidence* It represents about 1.5 per cent of all congenital anomalies. It occurs about two to three times more often in women than in men although the reason for the difference by sex and the mechanism for normal closure of the ductus are not yet clearly understood.

2 The size of the opening of the duct varies from less than 1 mm. to 10 mm. or more in diameter. There may be a direct communication between the pulmonary artery and aorta or the duct may be several centimeters in length. The duct may be thin as a thread or as thick as a small artery. About 10 per cent of the cases are associated with other congenital defects.

3 *Complications* subacute bacterial endocarditis at the site of the ductus. Embolic phenomena may develop in both the pulmonary and systemic circulations being most pronounced in the lungs.

There are no symptoms unless the opening is large when the degree of shunting will result in impairment of systemic circulation and stunting of growth. The symptoms of congestive heart failure may develop.

'rock' and not to lift. The cardiac impulse appears to tip. The pulmonary artery pulsation is palpable. The pulmonary second sound is well split. Normally, the pulmonary second sound is split particularly in children. The first part of the split sound originates from the aortic valve and the second one from the pulmonic. Only a single sound is heard over the aortic and mitral areas and in the neck. This sound originates from the aortic valve. With pulmonary hypertension such as occurs with auricular septal defect, there is associated an accentuated second part of the split pulmonic second sound. A split P_2 indicates that both the aortic and pulmonary arteries are fully developed. Wide splitting occurs if there is right bundle branch block. The right bundle branch block pattern is common with auricular septal defect.

The various roentgenographic studies reveal a prominence of the pulmonary cones, large main pulmonary artery and its branches, and all pulmonary vascular markings are increased. The pulmonary vessels pulsate strongly and a hilar dance may be observed. The left and right atria, especially the latter, are usually large.

Catheterization studies reveal an increase in pressure in the right atrium and right ventricle, and the oxygen content of the blood in the right atrium, right ventricle and pulmonary artery is higher than normal. The catheter is often passed through the auricular septal defect into the left atrium and pulmonary veins where fully oxygenated blood is obtained. When this occurs the defect is definitely established. The amount of blood shunted through the defect can be calculated by the method previously described.

Angiocardiography is of little assistance in demonstrating the septal defect because the blood is shunted from left to right. Its greatest value is found in eliminating other defects.

Paradoxical embolism may occur that is an embolus from a thrombus on the right or venous side of the systemic circulation which passes through the septal opening and occludes an artery of the systemic circulation rather than a pulmonary artery.

Associated congenital (said to be acquired by some observers) mitral stenosis and interauricular septal defect is called the Lutembacher syndrome. The combined effects of the two defects are present. The septal opening probably prolongs life by relieving the strain imposed on the pulmonary veins and left atrium by mitral stenosis.

Ventricular Septal Defect

1 *Incidence* Ventricular septal defect constitutes about 12 per cent of the congenital defects encountered clinically.

2 *Symptoms* are usually absent unless there is a large opening.

3 *Signs*

a There is no cyanosis unless a large septal opening with churning and mixing of blood exists (Fig. 158).

b The peripheral pulse is small or normal.

lunes and their manifestations are the same as those found in aortic insufficiency and the same peripheral vascular signs (capillary pulsations Traube's pistol shot sign Corrigan pulse etc) may be present

4 The roentgenographic studies are important They reveal enlargement of the pulmonary conus main pulmonary artery and its main branches There is an increase in the pulmonary vascular markings with

1. There may be a hilar dance

It shows left ventricular hypertrophy which varies directly in degree with the size of the ductus opening There may be evidence of right ventricular hypertrophy in some instances

6 Cardiac catheterization reveals an increase in the O_2 content of the blood obtained from the pulmonary artery The pulmonary arterial pressure is increased A catheter passed through the patent ductus into the aorta will definitely establish the abnormal communication

7 Angiocardiography is usually of little assistance since this is a left to right shunt although the radiopaque material may be noted to be reduced in concentration at the point of entrance and distal to its entrance in the pulmonary artery Its greatest value is in eliminating or detecting other lesions

8 The course of the disease is variable If the ductus opening is small life expectancy is not altered by the defect but if large congestive heart failure and impaired growth develop Subacute bacterial endarteritis occurs in about 30 per cent of patients The offending organism is usually *Streptococcus viridans*

9 Treatment consists in surgical ligation if the ductus is producing cardiac enlargement and impairment of function With skilled surgical technic the mortality rate is less than 5 per cent but with poorer technic it may approach 30 per cent Subacute bacterial endarteritis

and growth occurs rapidly

Pulmonary Stenosis

1. Pulmonary Valvular Stenosis with Intact Atrial and Ventricular Septa
Uncomplicated pulmonary stenosis constitutes about 10 per cent of the congenital defects seen clinically

1 Incidence is about equal in both sexes

2 The degree of stenosis varies The clinical manifestations vary directly with the severity of the stenosis

The symptoms are
impairment of pu

3 Signs

- a The *machine murmur* is diagnostic. It is continuous with systolic accentuation, the normally split pulmonary second sound the second or pulmonary portion being accentuated (fig 159). There may be but rarely is only a systolic murmur. A functional mitral diastolic rumble may be present. There is an associated thrill. The murmur is heard best in the first or second intercostal space near the sternum.
- b There is no cyanosis, as oxygenated blood is shunted into the pulmonary artery, nor is there clubbing of the fingers and toes.
- c The blood pressure shows a high pulse pressure due to high systolic pressure and low diastolic pressure. The hemodynamic distur-

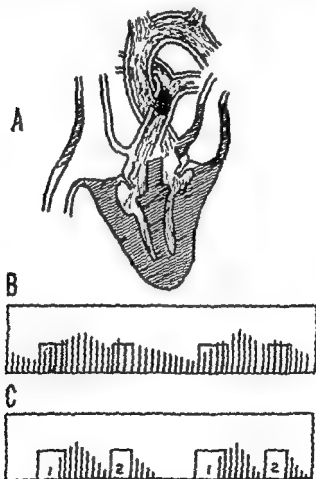


FIG. 159.—Diagram illustrating patent ductus arteriosus and turbulence of blood flow from the aorta into the pulmonary artery. The first diagram of the heart sound and murmurs shows the characteristic continuous murmur with systolic accentuations and reversed P_2 . The second diagram shows the first characteristic but fairly common distal systolic and diastolic murmurs. These are heard best over the P area. Consult the text for details.

bruits and their manifestations are the same as those found in aortic insufficiency and the same peripheral vascular signs (capillary pulsations, Brink's pistol-shot sign, Corrigan pulse, etc.) may be present.

4. The roentgenographic studies are important. They reveal enlargement of the pulmonary conus, main pulmonary artery and its main branches. There is an increase in the pulmonary vascular markings with increased pulsations and pulmonary plethora. There may be a hilar dance. The right and left ventricles may be large.

5. The electrocardiogram is not diagnostic. It shows left ventricular hypertrophy which varies directly in degree with the size of the ductus opening. There may be evidence of right ventricular hypertrophy in some instances.

6. Cardiac catheterization reveals an increase in the O_2 content of the blood obtained from the pulmonary artery. The pulmonary arterial pressure is increased. A catheter passed through the patent ductus into the aorta will definitely establish the abnormal communication.

7. Angiocardiography is usually of little assistance since this is a left to right shunt although the radiopaque material may be noted to be reduced in concentration at the point of entrance and distal to its entrance in the pulmonary artery. Its greatest value is in eliminating or detecting other lesions.

8. The course of the disease is variable. If the ductus opening is small life expectancy is not altered by the defect but if large congestive heart failure and impaired growth develop. Subacute bacterial endarteritis occurs in about 30 per cent of patients. The offending organism is usually *Streptococcus viridans*.

9. Treatment consists in surgical ligation if the ductus is producing cardiac enlargement and impairment of function. With skilled surgical technique the mortality rate is less than 5 per cent but with poorer technique it may be 20 per cent.

After closure the cardiac state then slowly returns to normal, and growth occurs rapidly.

Pulmonary Stenosis

1. Pulmonary Valvular Stenosis with Intact Atrial and Ventricular Septa
Uncomplicated pulmonary stenosis 10 per cent of the

congenital

1

2

1

signs are primarily those of congestive heart failure. With exertion dyspnea may be severe. Squinting and substernal oppression or pain may be present and syncope may occur.

3 Signs

- a Cyanosis is usually not present unless the stenosis is severe. It is peripheral in origin due to impairment of blood flow through the lungs.
- b The patient may have a *flushed appearance* or a 'moon face'.
- c The *peripheral arterial pulse* tends to be small and weak.
- d A *large a wave* in the jugular pulse is almost always present and may be noted with the naked eye.
- e The *right ventricle* is felt to lift the precordium or to cause it to heave. The precordium bulges anteriorly with right ventricular enlargement.
- f The *pulmonary arterial impulse* in the second intercostal space near the sternum is not felt because pulmonary arterial pressure is reduced.
- g A *harsh and widely distributed systolic murmur* is always present in the pulmonary area. A *thrill* is usually associated with the murmur and may be present in the third intercostal space.
- h The *pulmonary second heart sound* may be split or there may be a single sound due to the presence of only the aortic component and absence of the pulmonary one, but it is not necessary that only a single sound be present.

i *Roentgenographic studies* may reveal poststenotic dilatation of the main pulmonary artery. The pulmonary vascular markings are reduced and the pulmonary fields appear clear. There is right ventricular enlargement and the right atrium may be enlarged. The aorta appears to be small because of the low cardiac output. If there is mild pulmonary stenosis the pulmonary vascular markings will appear normal.

j The *electrocardiogram* shows evidence of right ventricular hypertrophy. The pattern for complete or incomplete right bundle branch block may be present.

k *Cardiac catheterization* reveals an increase in right atrial pressure and a definite increase in left ventricular pressure. The pressure in the pulmonary artery is greatly reduced. When the catheter is retracted from the pulmonary artery into the right ventricle while the pressure is continuously being recorded a characteristic pressure record is obtained. The pressure suddenly rises from the low pressure distal to the stenosis recorded in the pulmonary artery to the high systolic pressure recorded in the right ventricle proximal to the stenosis. The pressure rises suddenly when the catheter tip is retracted from the pulmonary artery into the right ventricle proximal to the stenotic point.

l *Angiocardiography* reveals delayed filling and visualization of the pulmonary arteries and in turn the left atrium and left ventricle. The

contrast medium is retained for a relatively long period of time in the right atrium and ventricle proximal to the obstruction

8 *Surgical* basis of the stenosis is of considerable therapeutic value and is fairly safe in experienced hands

B Pulmonary Infundibular Stenosis The findings are essentially the same as described for valvular stenosis except

- 1 Post-stenotic dilatation is absent
- 2 The systolic murmur and thrill are lower
- 3 Right ventricular left parasternal lift tends to be absent especially if the stenosis is low

4 Cardiac catheterization may reveal three different zones of pressure and it may be necessary to withdraw the catheter considerably for the tip to find itself in the right ventricle proper

C Pulmonary Stenosis with Ventricular Septal Defect The findings are those of pulmonary stenosis with a left to-right shunt through the ventricular septal defect. The diagnosis is especially well established by cardiac catheterization with the usual expected findings of pressure and O₂ concentration

D Pulmonary Stenosis with Atrial Septal Defect The picture is one of both defects. If the pulmonary stenosis is severe and the right atrial pressure is high there will be a right to left shunt with the net result

flow of blood from right to left. Cyanosis usually occurs late and progresses with age and with exertion. The diagnosis is usually confused with tetralogy of Fallot. Since the Blalock operation is not to be performed in pulmonary stenosis, angiocardinography here is a right to left

Tetralogy of Fallot

1 Tetralogy of Fallot is one of the most common syndromes of the multiple congenital defects. It is found in about 10%

- a Ventricular septal patency
- b Pulmonary stenosis
- = Anatomic or functional overriding of the aorta
- d Right ventricular hypertrophy

The

2

It t

progress for several years

before reaching a relatively fixed state. Cyanosis is due to shunting of venous blood low in O_2 content from the right ventricle directly into the aorta with distribution throughout the systemic circulation (Fig 160). Secondary polycythemia is a usual manifestation.

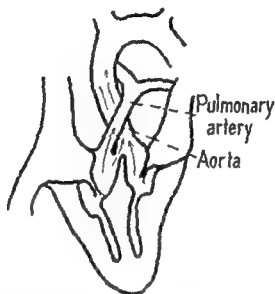


FIG. 160.—Diagram showing how overriding of the aorta in tetralogy of Fallot produces cyanosis: unoxygenated blood enters the aorta from the right ventricle in addition to oxygenated blood from the left ventricle.

3 Signs

- a The jugular pulsations are not necessarily altered. The a wave is increased only slightly, if at all.
 - b A systolic murmur and thrill are elicited best in the second, third or fourth intercostal space just to the left of the sternum. A thrill is not always present but a murmur can always be heard.
 - c The pulmonic second sound is practically always single and clear and is usually loud. It represents the first or aortic component without a pulmonic second component. It tends to be loud because the aorta is shifted more anteriorly when it is displaced.
 - d Precordial palpitation reveals right ventricular enlargement with lifting of the precordium with the heart beat.
 - e Precordial bulging due to right ventricular enlargement is usually noted.
 - f Impairment of mental and physical growth is common, the degree being related to the severity of the defect.
 - g Squatting is observed frequently.
 - h Manifestations of congestive heart failure are commonly observed.
- 4 Roentgenographic studies reveal enlargement of the right ventricle.

tendency for the apex of the heart to appear displaced upward and to the left the left edge of the cardiac shadow to be concave in many instances due to absence of the pulmonary conus and artery, small or absent aortic knob and vascularity or clarity of the pulmonary fields (Fig 161) may be noted especially if its branches are small or absent (Fig 162)

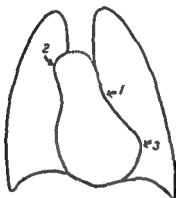


FIG 161—The anteroposterior silhouette in tetralogy of Fallot. Three important characteristics are shown: (1) The extreme concavity of the left margin of the heart shadow at the region of the pulmonary conus. This is due to atresia of the pulmonary artery and conus and dextroposition of the aorta. (2) The aortic knob and aorta are on the right. (3) The right ventricular enlargement literally lifts the heart up and displaces the apex and interventricular knob or groove cephalad. This lifting effect is due to the fact that the right ventricle rests on the diaphragm. When it enlarges it displaces the heart cephalad.

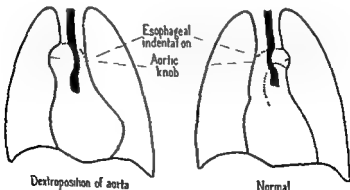


FIG 162—

5 The *electrocardiogram* shows extreme right axis deviation and large R waves in V_1 and large S waves in V_4 and V_6 which are indicative of right ventricular hypertrophy. The P waves are usually high wide and peaked a common finding in congenital heart disease with right ventricular hypertrophy.

6 *Cardiac catheterization* reveals an increase in pressure in the right ventricle and an increase in O_2 content in the right ventricle. The catheter may be passed directly into the left ventricle or into the aorta thus demonstrating the ventricular defect and anterior displacement of the aorta. The lower pressure in the pulmonary artery than in the right ventricle is often demonstrable, as indicated previously for pulmonary stenosis. Because of atresia of the pulmonary artery, the vessel may be too small for the catheter to enter for pressure recordings.

7 *Inguinocardiography* reveals rapid filling of the aorta directly from the right ventricle, with relatively little circulation of the radiopaque medium into the pulmonary vessels.

8 *Surgical therapy* consists in shunting blood from a systemic artery in the chest into a pulmonary artery distal to the point of stenosis. This improves oxygenation of blood and thus ameliorates the state of cyanosis. The operation results in a shunting procedure similar to that for patent ductus arteriosus. Although the patient is improved immediately his life may be prolonged for only a few years. Follow up studies are required to determine permanent postoperative effects on life expectancy and cardiac function. It is well to remember that such a patient will continue to have serious heart disease.

Eisenmenger's Complex

1 This syndrome of multiple congenital cardiac anomalies is not common. It represents about one per cent of the cardiac congenital defects. The diagnosis is frequently made but is rarely substantiated. It is frequently referred to as the *tetralogy of Eisenmenger* because it consists of

- a Ventricular septal defect
- b Anatomic or functional overriding of the aorta
- c Pulmonary arterial dilatation
- d Right ventricular hypertrophy

The clinical picture is described by the following characteristics.

2 Moderate cyanosis occurs fairly late but is not as severe or as progressive as in tetralogy of Fallot. It is central in origin. There may be mild to moderate but never severe clubbing of the fingers and toes.

3 Signs

- a The cardiac impulse is *tapping* and the conus arteriosus and precordium manifest *heaving* with the heart beat due to enlargement of the conus arteriosus and right ventricle.
- b There may be palpable pulsations of the pulmonary artery.
- c A systolic murmur and thrill are found in the third intercostal space near the left margin of the sternum.

- d The pulmonary second sound is split as in the normal subject, but the second or pulmonary vascular component is accentuated
- 4 Roentgenographic studies reveal right ventricular enlargement, a prominent pulmonary conus and dilatation of the pulmonary arteries with fairly well defined peripheral vascular shadows. The pulmonary vascular pulsations are essentially normal
- 5 The electrocardiogram manifests right ventricular hypertrophy
- 6 Cardiac catheterization shows an increase in pressure in the right ventricle and in the pulmonary arteries. The blood shows a decrease in oxygen content in the right ventricle pulmonary arteries, right atrium and venae cavae. The blood in the pulmonary veins and left atrium are of normal O_2 saturation. Blood in the aorta is less saturated with O_2 than normal blood due to the fact that blood is pumped into the aorta from the right ventricle. In some instances the catheter may be shown to enter the aorta and the left ventricle in observation which is of considerable value in definitely establishing the diagnosis
- 7 Angiocardiography shows the subpulmonic material to enter the aorta and pulmonary artery simultaneously without entering the left atrium before filling of the aorta
- 8 Differential diagnosis becomes especially important in this syndrome because the Eisenmenger complex is so frequently erroneously diagnosed. Among the clinical states falsely considered the Eisenmenger complex are
 - a Idiopathic pulmonary hypertension with reversal flow through a patent foramen ovale atrial septal defect or ventricular septal defect. This is the most common cause for error
 - b Pulmonary stenosis with post-stenotic dilatation and atrial septal defect
- 9 Surgical intervention is not indicated in this congenital defect

Tricuspid Atresia

- 1 Tricuspid atresia is relatively rare representing about three per cent of congenital cardiac defects. It has essentially the following significant diagnostic manifestations:
 - 2 Absence of central origin
 - 3 Diminished pulmonary blood flow manifested roentgenographically by absence or reduced pulmonary vascular shadows and pulsations
 - 4 Roentgenographic evidence of left ventricular hypertrophy and absence of a small right ventricle and pulmonary conus and arteries
 - 5 Electrocardiographic evidence of left ventricular hypertrophy. This is the only electrocardiographic type of congenital cardiac defect in which there is such an electrocardiographic manifestation. This is due to the rudimentary right ventricle
 - 6 Cardiac catheterization shows an atrial septal defect with right to left shunting. The catheter may enter the left atrium
 - 7 Angiocardiography reveals immediate filling of the left atrium and ventricle with little or no demonstrable filling of the right ventricle and

5 The *electrocardiogram* shows extreme right axis deviation and large R waves in V_1 and large S waves in V_5 and V_6 , which are indicative of right ventricular hypertrophy. The P waves are usually high, wide, and peaked, a common finding in congenital heart disease with right ventricular hypertrophy.

6 *Cardiac catheterization* reveals an increase in pressure in the right ventricle and an increase in O_2 content in the right ventricle. The catheter may be passed directly into the left ventricle or into the aorta, thus demonstrating the ventricular defect and anterior displacement of the aorta. The lower pressure in the pulmonary artery than in the right ventricle is often demonstrable, as indicated previously for pulmonary stenosis. Because of atresia of the pulmonary artery, the vessel may be too small for the catheter to enter for pressure recordings.

7 *Angiocardiography* reveals rapid filling of the aorta directly from the right ventricle, with relatively little circulation of the radiopaque medium into the pulmonary vessels.

8 *Surgical therapy* consists in shunting blood from a systemic artery in the chest into a pulmonary artery distal to the point of stenosis. This improves aeration of blood and thus ameliorates the state of cyanosis. The operation results in a shunting procedure similar to that for patent ductus arteriosus. Although the patient is improved immediately, his life may be prolonged for only a few years. Follow-up studies are required to determine permanent postoperative effects on life expectancy and cardiac function. It is well to remember that such a patient will continue to have serious heart disease.

Eisenmenger's Complex

1 This syndrome of multiple congenital cardiac anomalies is not common. It represents about one per cent of the cardiac congenital defects. The diagnosis is frequently made but is rarely substantiated. It is frequently referred to as the *tetralogy of Eisenmenger* because it consists of

- a Ventricular septal defect
- b Anatomic or functional overriding of the aorta
- c Pulmonary arterial dilatation
- d Right ventricular hypertrophy

The clinical picture is described by the following characteristics.

2 Moderate cyanosis occurs fairly late but is not as severe or as progressive as in tetralogy of Fallot. It is central in origin. There may be mild to moderate, but never severe, clubbing of the fingers and toes.

3 *Signs*

- a The cardiac impulse is *tapping*, and the conus area and precordium manifest *lifting* with the heart beat due to enlargement of the conus area and right ventricle.
- b There may be palpable pulsations of the pulmonary artery.
- c A systolic murmur and thrill are found in the third intercostal space near the left margin of the sternum.

through the lungs and left atrium. The heart is quickly emptied of the contrast material with little or no filling of the left cardiac chambers. Curiously enough, the pulmonary vessels are not well visualized by angiocardiology.

7 The most successful operation, if the patient survives it, consists in anastomosis of the right superior pulmonary vein into the right atrium, creation of an atrial septal defect and anastomosis of the end of a subclavian artery to the distal end of a pulmonary artery.

Coarctation of the Aorta

These defects constitute about 10 per cent of all congenital anomalies.

1. 000

2 The *adult type* which is a narrow area of constriction usually just above the aortic arch is much more common than

4 *Hypertension* systolic and diastolic in the vessels having their origin proximal to the site of narrowing (Fig. 163). The systolic blood pressure in the arteries originating below the site of constriction is low whereas the diastolic blood pressure is usually elevated but to a lesser degree than in the vessels originating proximal to the site of constriction. To detect these blood pressure changes which are extremely important in diagnosis one must determine the arterial pressure in both the upper and lower extremities.

9. 4

4a to pulse more vigorously than normal and to be more easily palpated. Smooth erosion of bone is noted roentgenographically particularly near the vertebral ends of the ribs where the intercostal arteries course under the ribs to run along their inferior and internal margins. This produces a scalloping of the ribs.

4 The aortic knob is reduced or absent as noted by roentgenographic study.

5 Left ventricular enlargement is almost invariably absent.

6 The infantile type is to be incompatible with life and it is usually too severe to permit long life. The adult type is usually compatible with life.

pulmonary arteries. The latter disturbance varies in degree with the extent of the tricuspid atresia. The bronchial arteries which are mainly responsible for the pulmonary circulation may be demonstrated by angiocardigraphy.

8 The same type of surgical shunting operation is indicated for this type of defect as for tetralogy of Fallot.

Transposition of the Great Vessels

1 This defect constitutes 8 to 10 per cent of all the congenital abnormalities of the heart. Because it is relatively common its clinical characteristics should be known.

2 *Dyspnea* is always present but squatting seems to offer little relief. *Coughing* may be pronounced and distressing.

3 Signs

a Cyanosis is always present from birth. It is aggravated by crying, coughing, feeding, and exposure to cold. The lower part of the body may be less cyanosed than the upper part. *Secondary polycythemia* seen in all cyanotic types of congenital defects is observed. Clubbing of the fingers and toes is present and may be especially severe.

b Congestive heart failure is common.

c A systolic murmur and thrill are found in the third interspace near the left margin of the sternum.

d Palpation of the precordium reveals lifting over the right ventricular and conus areas and pulmonary arterial pulsations due to enlargement of these structures.

4 *Röntgenographic studies* are especially important, revealing extreme pulmonary plethora and moderate pulmonary vascular pulsations in a cyanotic child are almost diagnostic in themselves. The aortic and pulmonary arterial shadows are narrow on the anteroposterior view and become especially wide in the oblique and lateral views. The presence of a concave left middle segment of the anteroposterior view with pulmonary plethora is especially important. Occasionally there is a long bulge or convexity to the left middle segment in the anteroposterior view in these patients.

5 Cardiac catheterism reveals an elevation in pressure within the right ventricle and pulmonary arteries. The O_2 saturation of the blood is reduced throughout the cavities studied. Passage of the tip of the catheter into the aorta and at times also into the pulmonary artery is diagnostic of the defect. If there is a ventricular septal defect and a left to right shunt the blood in the pulmonary artery will contain more O_2 than that in the aorta and peripheral arteries. There may also be an atrial septal defect. Although shunting through the ventricular septal defect may be right to left or left to right that through the atrial septal defect is right to left.

6 Angiocardiography reveals immediate filling of the aorta from the right ventricle without previous circulation of the radiopaque material.

through the lungs and left atrium. The heart is quickly emptied of the contrast material with little or no filling of the left cardiac chambers. Curiously enough the pulmonary vessels are not well visualized by angiocardigraphy.

7 The most successful operation, if the patient survives it, consists in anastomosis of the right superior pulmonary vein into the right atrium, creation of an atrial septal defect and anastomosis of the end of a subclavian artery to the distal end of a pulmonary artery.

Coarctation of the Aorta

These defects constitute about 10 per cent of all congenital anomalies. There are two types:

1 The *infantile type* which consists in narrowing of the whole isthmus or that portion between the left subclavian artery and the ductus arteriosus. It should be remembered that in fetal life the isthmus carries very little blood.

2 The *adult type* which is a narrow area of constriction usually just proximal to the ductus arteriosus. This type is much more common than the

vessels having their origin proximal to the site of narrowing (Fig. 163). The systolic blood pressure in the arteries originating below the site of constriction is low, whereas the diastolic blood pressure is usually elevated but to a lesser degree than in the vessels originating proximal to the site of constriction. To detect these blood pressure changes which are extremely important in diagnosis one must determine the arterial pressure in both the upper and lower extremities.

2. Aortic knob

3

scap

to pt

5. aortic knob

Position of the aortic knob is noted roentgenographically particularly near the vertebral ends of the ribs where the intercostal arteries course under the ribs to run along their inferior and internal margins. This produces a scalloping of the ribs.

4 The aortic knob is reduced or absent as noted by roentgenographic study.

5 Left ventricular enlargement is almost invariably present.

6 Angiocardiography makes localization of the site of constriction

severe to permit long life and it is usually too severe to permit long life. The *adult type* may be so slight as not to alter the cardiac state to any demonstrable extent. Left ventricular congestive heart failure is a common complication which must be treated in the usual manner.

The management of coarctation of the aorta is essentially the same as that for any congenital cardiac defect. It should be governed by the severity of the defect. Limitation of physical activity, good hygienic measures

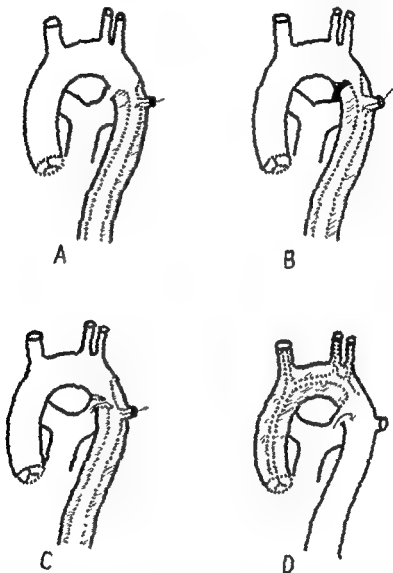


FIG. 163—Illustration of various types of coarctation of the aorta. Part A shows atresia of the aorta distal to the ductus arteriosus (duct of Botilli). The duct is patent, a fairly common association because the high pressure in the proximal portion of the aorta tends to prevent the ductus from closing. The arrows show how blood enters the narrowed aorta via the vertebral arteries or other branches. Part B shows the same type of coarctation with the ductus arteriosus closed. Part C shows an atresia of the aorta as in Part A, except that it begins proximal to the ductus arteriosus. The ductus

and adequate cardiac observation from time to time are certainly indicated. The physician should prevent the development of a "cardiac invalid" or a "cardiac neurosis." Surgical management is still in the stage of development being adequately performed by few surgeons.

In general it is important to indicate that the foregoing discussions of the more common congenital cardiac defects have necessarily been brief. All of the defects have not been discussed and some of the variations have been omitted. The medical literature must be studied to learn more of the details of the methods employed for the study of congenital heart disease for the disturbances in oxygenation of blood and in hemodynamics and for surgical management.

OTHER ETIOLOGIC TYPES OF HEART DISEASE

Other etiologic types of heart disease include (1) pulmonary, (2) traumatic, (3) neoplastic, (4) nephritic, (5) toxic etc. Discussion of these may be found in other monographs on cardiology and in the general medical literature.

CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE

Because of its frequency and occurrence as a complication in many types of heart disease congestive heart failure is briefly presented here.

It is assumed that all students have acquainted themselves with it.

or simple. The treatment of congestive failure is by no means settled.

The treatment of congestive failure is by no means settled. The severity of the failure determines the treatment. The treatment of congestive heart failure is by no means settled. The severity of the failure determines the treatment. The treatment of congestive heart failure is by no means settled. The severity of the failure determines the treatment.

The therapy is essentially as follows:

1. **Rest**—Without a doubt the most important therapeutic agent at the physician's command is rest both mental and physical. The rest should be absolute and not include bathroom privileges. A few minutes of exercise in order to walk to the bathroom can overcome the benefits accomplished by many hours of bed rest. The complete removal of domestic duties. The physician should de-

attendants to effect these aims. A good nurse prompt and constant attention a radio pleasant and nonexciting visitors in limited numbers and for a short time and peaceful surroundings are of extreme value. It is only by meticulous attention to details that good results are obtained. After all, a patient with severe congestive heart failure represents a medical emergency and is bordering on death therefore it is not advisable to be superficial. Attention to minute details in therapy is imperative.

2 **Environment**—The patient's environment or atmosphere of the room should be made comfortably cool with the use of air-conditioning if possible. The oxygen tent will serve in this capacity, as well as in the supply of oxygen if air-conditioning is not available. This is particularly important during heat waves and in subtropical and tropical environments. It is important not to allow the room air to become warm and humid, since this makes thermal regulation difficult and increases the cardiac output and work. The increase in work is equivalent to that associated with exercise which is known to be detrimental. The rate of heat production is already elevated by the work associated with the dyspnea and apprehension.

3 **Morphine**—This is one of the most important drugs in medicine and especially in congestive heart failure. Adequate doses must be used however at least $\frac{1}{2}$ grain (15 mg) subcutaneously as soon as the patient is placed in bed. This removes the anxiety panic and fear of death which accompanies these episodes especially the first one. The injections should be repeated at frequent intervals if necessary of course avoiding depression of respiration.

4 **Oxygen**—This is best administered in an oxygen chamber but may be done fairly well by a mask tent or nasal catheter. The method least annoying should be employed. The method should be changed from time to time for the patient's comfort. The inspired air should contain about 55 per cent oxygen if possible. This should be checked quantitatively if possible.

5 **Phenobarbital** should be used *only* when necessary to reduce anxiety and to produce sleep but not empirically. The dose given should vary with the patient grain $1\frac{1}{2}$ (90 mg) tablets once twice or three times daily, that is enough to produce the desired pharmacologic effects.

6 **Sodium intake** should be restricted to a minimum not over 17 grams daily. To accomplish low sodium levels sodium-containing drugs should be avoided.

7 **Diet**—It is advisable to administer no food for the first twenty-four to thirty-six hours. The food allowed should be soft low in residue free from added salt and intrinsically low in salt. Cereals milk soft boiled eggs vegetable purees etc may be used. The baby foods low in salt may be used. Frequent small feedings should be employed never allow the patient to consume a large meal. Foods known to produce gastro-intestinal disturbances should be avoided. The Karrel diet only 800 cc of milk per day, may be valuable.

8 **Fluids**—Water should be allowed *ad libitum*. Patients who are not eating very much salt will not drink very much anyway. Avoid cold drinks, as there is a possibility of reflex coronary vasoconstriction from the

local cooling. Tap water at room temperature is best. There is no apparent adequate reason for forcing water if sodium is restricted.

9 Digitalis is an important drug. It should be administered in full doses and rapidly.

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 immediately at the end of eight hours one-half of the remaining dose is given and then 2 units every eight hours until full digitalization is reached. The patient should be examined before each dose is given in order to avoid overdigitalization and to obtain the desired effects. For example, if a patient weighs 150 pounds he will require about 20 units of digitalis to digitalize.

given patient will require. Administer the correct amount as determined by the clinical results. One unit daily or more will be necessary for maintenance of digitalization. The digitalis leaves or the pure glucosides, such as digitoxin, digoxin or lanatoside C may be employed. Whole-leaf orally is preferable. Subcutaneous or intravenous administration is employed in the severe and very acute failure. The dosage may be smaller. If the patient is checked before each dose, no serious error can occur. The importance

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 employed. Should diuresis fail to occur the drug should be stopped. Examine the urine at frequent intervals to avoid renal damage from the mercury. One to 2 cc intravenously during the period of acute failure may be necessary even before full digitalization has been effected. This is a good drug. It is sometimes possible to maintain the patient free of edema by daily subcutaneous administration of 0.25 to 0.50 cc of a mercurial diuretic. Patients can be taught to administer this to themselves at home just as diabetic patients are taught to use insulin.

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Laxatives and *laxatives* should be used only as indicated but they are not to be employed routinely. This is also true for any other drugs that may be necessary.

Diet—The patient's diet should be limited to foods which do not produce dyspepsia. It should be well balanced, not necessarily limited to any special foods, but restricted only in sodium if the patient has a tendency to develop congestive heart failure. It should be bland, feeding should be frequent, and the patient should be advised to eat especially fresh fruits and vegetables. He should reduce his weight if he is obese. Patients frequently have a tendency to gain weight when they are placed at rest, and this of course should be avoided. Such patients should never eat heavily and certainly should never exercise after meals. Frequent small feedings and eating slowly are to be advocated.

Tobacco, Caffeine Beverages and Alcohol—The rules for tobacco, caffeine beverages and alcohol are outlined in the discussion on the treatment of coronary occlusion. The patient should be advised to refrain completely from the use of tobacco, to restrict himself to one caffeine beverage daily, and to use alcohol sparingly. Alcohol should not be prescribed to the patient except for its tonic effect, since there is no concrete evidence that it produces coronary dilatation.

General Hygienic Measures—The usual general hygienic measures should be enforced. The patient should be advised once he starts to ambulate, not to overexert himself and not to become disturbed mentally or physically. He should obtain his full number of hours of sleep and have a period of rest after his noon meal with the possibility of a short rest during the middle of the morning and the middle of the afternoon if his state of angina pectoris warrants this. He should not rush during the course of the day nor work excessively. He should remain free from tension and should work in a relaxed state.

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have the patient relaxed and happy. If he has any systemic diseases they should be properly treated. Infections, such as those of the gums or tonsils, should be properly handled. The patient should see his physician at regular intervals to make sure that his therapeutic regimen is being followed and that any complications, such as congestive heart failure which may develop, are treated early.

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mental side effect is to be avoided. The patient should not be overtreated with drugs, since there are no known specific drugs of value for the cure of this disease. Physicians frequently make the mistake of overtreating the patient, administering numerous drugs and pills during the course of a day, these in themselves produce unhappiness and disturbances in the

TREATMENT OF ANGINA PECTORIS

Angina pectoris is another common cardiac problem which the cardiologist, internist, and general practicing physician encounter in cardiology. The therapeutic procedures outlined briefly in the following paragraphs are concerned with the average patient and are not intended to be a detailed and complete review of the problem.

Rest—Once the diagnosis of angina pectoris has been made, it is probably best for the patient to be placed in bed for a period of four weeks. Apparently more rapid and definite benefits in therapy may be achieved by this procedure, since it removes the patient from his daily routine and thus permits him to eliminate all problems of a psychological as well as physical nature which he encounters in his normal daily activities. Most patients with angina pectoris have various kinds of mental and physical stresses. With bed rest these cease and the patient has an opportunity for reflection and realization that a modification of his life is necessary if he is to benefit from therapy and live in fairly good health for several more years. During this period of bed rest it is possible for the physician to evaluate the general medical state of the patient by careful medical inventory, to try various forms of therapy, and to work with the patient in planning future therapy.

Drugs—Few drugs are effective in the management of angina pectoris. Nitroglycerin $\frac{1}{320}$ gr. or more administered sublingually is probably the drug of greatest value. The patient may use it to avoid pains as frequently as desired without acquiring tolerance to the drug. He should be advised to carry nitroglycerin with him at all times and to take it as soon as the pain occurs rather than delaying until the pain has reached maximal intensity.

Vasodilators—As mentioned in the preceding discussion of the management of coronary occlusion, there are no reliable vasodilators. Aminophylline may be tried in doses of 0.1-0.2 Gm. (1.5-3 gr.) three or four times daily, administered for two or three successive days and then discontinued for one or two days in order to avoid tolerance. Should gastric or intestinal disturbances appear the drug should be discontinued. Other vasodilators have been advocated such as *piperazine perazine* and *khellin*, but results have generally been poor and have varied considerably from patient to patient. If beneficial, their administration should be continued, but if they produce unfavorable side effects they should of course be discontinued promptly.

Sedatives—Sedatives should be employed sparingly. Barbiturate and derivatives such as phenobarbital at bedtime is advocated only for patients with insomnia and for patients who are restless and irritable and is not recommended as a routine procedure. Sodium-containing drugs should be avoided if the patient has congestive heart failure or a tendency toward it. If the patient is free from failure it is possible to use sodium-containing drugs when needed. Patients should not be over-sedated, as is unfortunately done by some physicians.

Stimulants and *laxatives* should be used only as indicated but they are not to be employed routinely. This is also true for any other drugs that may be necessary.

Diet—The patient's diet should be limited to foods which do not produce dyspepsia. It should be well balanced, not necessarily limited to any special foods but restricted only in sodium if the patient has a tendency to develop congestive heart failure. It should be bland, feeding should be frequent and the patient should be advised to eat especially fresh fruits and vegetables. He should reduce his weight if he is obese. Patients frequently have a tendency to gain weight when they are placed at rest and this of course should be avoided. Such patients should never eat heavily and certainly should never exercise after meals. Frequent small feedings and eating slowly are to be advocated.

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He should take frequent short vacations and one long annual vacation. Any mental nature should be resolved, they are producing unhappiness to him and he should be relaxed and happy. If he has any systemic diseases they should be properly treated. Infections such as those of the gums or tonsils should be properly handled. The patient should see his physician at regular intervals to make sure that his therapeutic regimen is being followed and that any complications such as are mentioned above are avoided.

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patient. The physician should make every effort to encourage the patient and see that he does not become a so-called 'cardiac neurotic' since the patients, as a rule, are anxious and frequently suffer from an anxiety state anyway.

Exertion — The patient should be advised not to exert himself to any extent that is known to produce anginal pain. He should be instructed that any procedure or any action on his part which he knows will produce pain should be avoided. He should be made to walk as little as possible if walking produces pain. If heavy meals precipitate pain he should be instructed to avoid them. Patients are also instructed not to test themselves by the use of exercise to learn whether or not they are improving. They should avoid walking up steep grades or exerting themselves particularly at high altitudes. They may be allowed airline travel provided there is no oxygen deficiency brought about by extreme high flying in nonpressurized cabins. The occupation should be modified if necessary, to obtain sufficient relaxation and to avoid annoyances which tend to produce anginal pain. Many of the details in therapy are solved by the patient and the physician as they follow the disease. Each patient must be individualized.

TREATMENT OF CORONARY OCCLUSION

The management of coronary occlusion is one of the principal problems confronting the cardiologist and the internist. It compares in importance with congestive heart failure and angina pectoris these three constituting the major problems in therapy associated with cardiovascular diseases. It is intended in the discussion to follow to present only briefly some of the more pertinent principles employed in the treatment of patients with coronary occlusion.

Mental and Physical Rest — As in the management of congestive heart failure proper rest both mental and physical is essential in the management of a patient with coronary occlusion. Every effort should be made to make the patient comfortable and free from anxiety. The physician, nurses, physician and others attending him should make his environment pleasant. Visitors should be limited to one or two who can bring comfort and relaxation to the patient. He should divorce himself immediately from all business and other worries. All of this can be achieved at the patient's home particularly if his family is not large and the facilities for proper care are available and especially if he cannot readily afford hospital costs. When necessary the patient should be moved to a private room in a hospital.

Environment of the Patient's Room — As in congestive heart failure the environmental atmosphere of the patient's room should be made comfortable and should certainly be free from overheating or high humidity. This may be achieved by means of air-conditioning proper ventilation of the room or, when this is not possible by means of the oxygen tent. The cool atmosphere of an oxygen tent particularly in tropical and subtropical

environments often offers more comfort and benefit to the patient than the oxygen itself. Every effort should be made to avoid overheating of the room by crowding of people or by tendency to prevent adequate ventilation.

Morphine—One of the most valuable drugs available to the physician in the management of a patient with coronary occlusion is morphine. The physician should use adequate doses immediately, at least a quarter of a grain subcutaneously. In the event that the pain is extremely severe morphine may be given intravenously. If the pain is not alleviated within an adequate period of time, the main difficulty which may be of a respiratory

disturbance due to sensitivity. It is important not to use small doses since the pain of coronary occlusion is one of the most severe that man experiences.

Oxygen The use of oxygen should be routine if the patient shows evidences of impairment of respiration, congestive heart failure or cyanosis. It is desirable to administer about 50 per cent oxygen preferably in an oxygen room or if that is not available by means of an oxygen tent, both because of the oxygen and the air-conditioning influences from the tent. If that is not available then nasal oxygen or oxygen mask may be used. Administration should be continued as long as is necessary.

Sedation—Care should be taken not to oversedate the patient. Many physicians today tend to prescribe too much of barbituric acid derivatives and other sedatives and to keep the patient in an oversedated state. Sedatives should be used only to produce relaxation and to overcome insomnia. If the patient is not responsive to sedatives, effects of sodium compounds for sodium to produce a sedative effect.

Vasodilators—There are no reliable coronary vasodilators. Aminophylline

is distressing particularly if there is a history of asthma. It should be administered slowly, the patient being carefully observed as the drug is being injected into the vein. One-tenth to three tenths gram (1 to 3 gr.) three or four times daily may be administered orally to improve the coronary circulation. It is not a reliable vasodilator. Acquired tolerance to the drug produces a decrease in its effect. Some physicians use this to be more especially promising. In general there are no reliable coronary vasodilators available.

Diet—During the early stages of infarction the patient should receive little to eat. If he desires food he may be limited to liquids followed by

two or three days by a soft bland diet and then may be allowed to return gradually to a regular diet. Sodium in the diet should be avoided because of its tendency to predispose to edema formation. Water may be allowed as desired by the patient.

Digitalis — Digitalis is indicated only for congestive heart failure, auricular fibrillation, auricular tachycardia, or auricular flutter. It is not to be used unless definitely indicated. If the patient has mild congestive heart failure, other measures should be tried before digitalis. This is important since digitalis predisposes to the development of cardiac irregularities of ventricular origin which may result in ventricular tachycardia and possibly ventricular fibrillation. However, when the patient definitely has congestive heart failure and it is progressing, digitalis must be used in the usual manner as described previously for the management of congestive heart failure.

Quinidine — Quinidine is not to be used routinely in all patients with coronary occlusion. It should be employed however if the patient presents cardiac irregularities such as paroxysmal tachycardia, frequent premature contractions, auricular flutter, auricular fibrillation, and certainly irregularities of ventricular origin. An occasional premature beat of ventricular origin does not necessarily justify resorting to quinidine; however, if they persist or show a tendency to become multifocal, multiple or frequent, quinidine should be administered promptly. The dose should be 0.2–0.4 Gm. (3–6 gr.) every two to three hours or it may be increased depending upon the type of irregularity and the clinical state. It should be continued until the mechanistic disturbance is corrected, then the dose should be reduced and a maintenance dose of 0.2 Gm. every three or four hours for two or three weeks should be given. Should the patient present some of the toxic side effects of quinidine, the drug should be discontinued immediately. As a rule, this is not necessary.

Anticoagulants — Heparin and dicumarol, as well as some of the newer anticoagulants, have been advocated by some to be used routinely in coronary occlusion. This appears to be unnecessary and certainly not justified by the data obtained to date. They should be reserved only for patients who have definite thrombophlebitic disturbances. Even when thrombophlebitic phenomena are established, these anticoagulants have questionable value so that the physician must decide whether veins are to be ligated if the vein presenting the phlebothrombosis can be identified or if anticoagulants are to be employed. At present the management of thrombophlebitic phenomena is unsatisfactory despite published reports to the contrary. Whenever anticoagulants are employed, it is important that they be used cautiously and supported by adequate determinations of prothrombin time.

Other Drugs — Should the patient develop cardiac distress with profuse sweating and evidences of peripheral circulatory collapse, the tendency is to use many of the so-called stimulants. Coramine, metrazol, caffeine, sodium benzoate, and others have been employed. Most of them are probably more deleterious than useful. Patients are frequently made worse.

by the therapy, so that it becomes difficult to evaluate the results of the drugs or distinguish their effects from the state of the disease itself. It is important therefore not to complicate the clinical picture by using such drugs particularly if they are not likely to be beneficial.

Shock—Patients with acute coronary occlusion are prone to develop circulatory collapse and so-called medical shock. There is no dependable method available today for the management of this state. Infusions of plasma and transfusions have been tried but results have not been particularly encouraging. At the present time the most effective procedure appears to be a slow infusion of *norepinephrine* to maintain the blood pressure at not an exceedingly high level but at levels sufficiently high to insure adequate perfusion of the tissues by blood and for adequate glomerular filtration. Patients who had high blood pressure prior to the occlusion should have their blood pressure elevated by *norepinephrine* to higher levels than patients whose blood pressure was normal prior to the occlusion. The infusion should be

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the blood pressure decline when the infusion is discontinued it should be reinstituted immediately. As a rule when such infusions are employed for many hours they should be discontinued gradually. Sudden cessation of infusions of *norepinephrine* often results in a rapid return to the shock levels of blood pressure where is a gradual reduction in the rate of infusion permits the regulating blood pressure mechanisms of the body to assume gradually the function of maintaining blood pressure. Failure with the use of *norepinephrine* in maintaining blood pressure in the shock like state associated with coronary occlusion has usually been due to

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after the test is varied but six weeks appears to be an advisable period. Patients who find it difficult to use a bedpan may be permitted to use a commode placed next to the bed. The patient should be assisted in and out of bed for use of the commode by attendants. Some people experience less discomfort

he is not actually

Tobacco and Caffeine Beverages—Tobacco should be prohibited in a

patient in which patient may be injured by tobacco it is advisable to eliminate the use of tobacco completely in all patients. Caffeine beverages should be permitted only in small quantities because they tend to produce restlessness, insomnia, and excitement in the patient and not because of any direct action of the caffeine beverages on the heart. They are reduced to approximately one caffeine beverage per day. Alcohol has been prescribed because of the impression that it has coronary vasodilative influences. There is no evidence to support such benefits from alcohol. Probably its only value is its tonic effect, that is, for its psychologic influences rather than any direct pharmacologic action. Certainly the patient may be allowed to have an occasional alcoholic beverage but it should not be prescribed for those who do not desire it.

Laxatives—Mild laxatives should be given particularly to avoid straining of the stool. Patients who have had large quantities of morphine become constipated and therefore the use of mild laxatives is indicated. Laxatives that tend to produce gastrointestinal colic or any discomfort to the patient should obviously be avoided.

Nursing—Good nursing care not necessarily by professional nurses but by members of the family, practical nurses or friends is essential in the management of such patients particularly in the acute stages of illness. Making the patient comfortable, maintaining morale, and preventing the patient from becoming discouraged and excessively frightened by his cardiac disease are all extremely important.

Course of Convalescent Management—The value of periodic follow up examinations in order to avoid future infarcts and to detect early manifestations of angina pectoris or congestive heart failure cannot be overemphasized. During this follow up period the physician should avoid making a cardiac neurotic of his patient but should keep his patient properly advised and encouraged to carry on as normal a life as his cardiac reserve will permit. Should complications or sequelae develop such as congestive heart failure or angina pectoris careful follow up studies will permit early recognition and adequate management before these states become irreversible and difficult to manage.

CHAPTER 5

BEDSIDE DIAGNOSIS OF CARDIAC IRREGULARITIES

The electrocardiogram is the method of choice for the diagnosis of disturbances in cardiac mechanism. This method of study is employed whenever feasible. However, it is necessary that the attending physician be familiar with the regularities of the

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can be identified at the

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|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 Normal sinus rhythm | 6 Paroxysmal tachycardia |
| 2 Sinus tachycardia | 7 Auricular flutter |
| 3 Sinus bradycardia | 8 Auricular fibrillation |
| 4 Sinus arrhythmia | 9 Heart block |
| 5 Premature contractions | 10 Pulsus alternans |

Before undertaking this chapter the student should thoroughly acquaint himself with the mechanism of the heart beat and the transmission of impulses through the conduction tissue under normal and abnormal circumstances.

During the study of a patient for any type of complaint the cardiac evaluation should be approached in an orderly and organized manner. This approach in the practice of competent physicians is so commonplace that it becomes almost reflex in nature. If the physician is a careful observer and he should be trained to observe carefully, he begins checking the patient's cardiac mechanism when he first meets him, before the patient removes his clothes, and especially while the history is being obtained. Constant observation of the rate and rhythm of the heart is maintained throughout.

The rate, rhythm or any simple observations while a physical examination of a patient is

1 *Inspection* of the pulsations of peripheral vessels, both arteries and veins, wherever visible, can be valuable. Precordial cardiac pulsations are also often informative.

2 *Palpation* of similar vessels and precordium during the palpatory examination frequently yields precise information of

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during a normal blood pressure determination

5 = low sounds heard

It is the purpose of this chapter to show how much can be obtained by ordinary observation of simple phenomena which are usually passed over perfunctorily by the usual examiner. Where is the additional information obtained with more precise instruments, such as the phonocardiograph, the phlebograph and the electrocardiograph is of extreme value and must not be underemphasized these devices are adjuncts to diagnosis and do not replace the physician. A good clinician should be able to evaluate a patient entirely without their help.

NORMAL SINUS RHYTHM

The fundamental mechanism of the cardiac impulse is the *normal sinus rhythm*. This consists in the development and release of an impulse by the sino-auricular (SA) node at a rate of 60 to 90 times per minute. Each impulse released initiates a process of depolarization in the atrial musculature. The impulse stops momentarily at the atrioventricular (AV) node and is then released into the bundle of His, the two bundle branches and the network of Purkinje fibers from whence it is delivered to the ventricular musculature. At these points there is initiated a process of depolarization which spreads throughout the ventricles in an orderly manner repeating itself just before each heart beat. This sequence of events occurs when the node is normal in function. It is followed by certain cardiovascular phenomena which can be readily observed by the attending physician in his study of the patient.

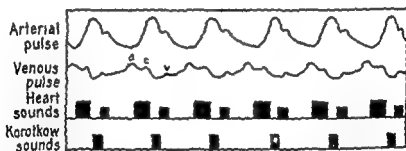


FIG 164 — Normal sinus rhythm. From above downward the arterial pulse, peripheral heart sounds and Korotkow sounds are recorded simultaneously. In subsequent figures of this type the abbreviations A, V, H, and K are used.

- 1 Pulsations of superficial arteries and heart at the precordium
- 2 Pulsations of superficial veins
- 3 Heart sounds
- 4 Korotkow sounds at least the sounds noted on recording a blood pressure

The criteria for the diagnosis of normal sinus rhythm are

- 1 The rate is from 60 to 90 beats per minute
- 2 The cardiac contractions are initiated by a normal pacemaker (SA node)

Establishment of the first criterion is obviously by inspection palpation and auscultation. The proof that the SA node is the originating focus is dependent upon the fact that this node is under regulatory control. If this can be demonstrated it must be concluded that such a rhythm is of a normal sinus mechanism (Fig. 164). This can be accomplished at the bedside.

- (a) Increased vagal tone results from carotid sinus or ocular pressure which is manifested by retardation of the rate.
- (b) Deep breathing results in a similar phenomenon. At the end of inspiration the rate decreases and becomes more rapid on deep expiration.
- (c) Exercise increases the rate gradually according to the degree of exertion. The processes involved are too complex to discuss here.
- (d) Change in body posture alters the heart rate.

In addition to these regulatory manifestations one can usually demonstrate a normal sequence of venous pulse waves. Such a sequence indicates exclusively that an auricular contraction is being followed by a ventricular contraction.

SINUS TACHYCARDIA

1. A regular rate of impulse formation exceeding 90 but rarely over 160 per minute is established automatically by inspection palpation and auscultation of the patient when he is first seen. If adult cardiac rate exceeds 90 beats a minute it is unlikely to be tachycardia.

2. Establishment of the SA node as the pacemaker in which impulse formation is essentially normal. The establishment of the SA node as the pacemaker in a patient with tachycardia is the most difficult problem. The criteria indicating the SA node as the pacemaker are:

- (1) The history is of great value. With sinus tachycardia the tachycardic rate gradually increases and subsides slowly as it returns to the normal resting rate. In paroxysmal tachycardia the onset and cessation are sudden (Fig. 165). This is also true of auricular flutter. Careful questioning of the patient will yield the foregoing characteristics.
- (2) Increase in vagal tone by carotid sinus pressure or ocular pressure results in a gradual reduction in the cardiac rate. The rate will slowly return to the previous level (Fig. 166). In paroxysmal tachycardia or auricular flutter the ventricular rate may suddenly (within the space of one beat) decrease (Figs. 167 and 167). In auricular flutter the rate promptly returns jerkily to its previous level.

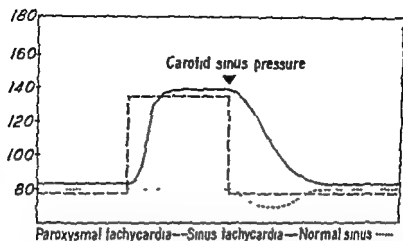


FIG 165 —The rate and degree of change in heart rate in *paroxysmal tachycardia*, *sinus tachycardia* and *normal sinus rhythm* which characteristically occurs spontaneously and following pressure on the carotid sinuses. Remember the parasympathetic innervation is only supraventricular in distribution. Consult the text for detail.

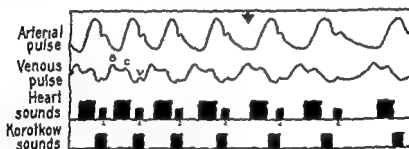


FIG 166 —Gradual reduction in cardiac rate in *sinus tachycardia* following pressure on the carotid sinuses.

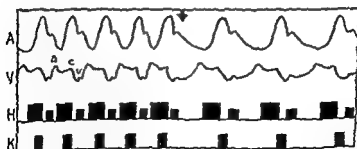


FIG 167 —Sudden reduction of cardiac rate within the interval of an cardiac cycle in *paroxysmal supraventricular (auricular or nodal) tachycardia*.

- (c) Exercise will gradually increase the cardiac rate as the exercise progresses. The increase is not particularly striking if the cardiac rate is already high, that is, around 110.
- (d) Deep breathing varies a great deal usually to a sufficient degree to produce a change in heart rate. At the end of deep inspiration the rate increases; it becomes less rapid near the end of expiration. A change in heart rate by respiration indicates the SA node to be the pacemaker of the heart. This is a practical test.
- (e) Change in body posture changes the cardiac rate.
- (f) The jugular veins will show a and c waves. Unfortunately, these are difficult to identify when the rate is rapid. With training this can be done, however. In uncomplicated sinus tachycardia an a wave should precede each c wave indicating an equal number of auricular and ventricular contractions (Fig. 168).

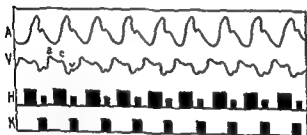


FIG. 168.—Sinus tachycardia. arterial pulse A, jugular pulse V, heart sounds H and Korotkoff sounds K. This lettering applies to all figures of this type.

(g) Fetal tachycardia is not a sign of fetal distress.

1. — is usually emotionally upset because of anxiety.

(h)

2. — does not constitute proof

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There is no specific treatment indicated for sinus tachycardia. The cause should be removed when it can be established. Satisfactory treatment of the cause such as congestive heart failure results in restoration of the heart rate to normal.

SINUS BRADYCARDIA

Whenever the heart rate is less than 60, bradycardia exists regardless of the type of mechanism responsible for it. If the SA node is the pacemaker and is responsible for the decreased rate, the mechanism is *sinus bradycardia* (Fig. 169). The diagnostic approach is as described previously.

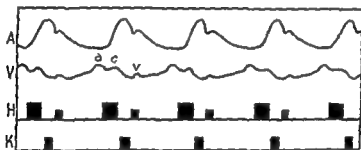


FIG. 169—*Sinus bradycardia*

The diagnostic criteria elicited at the bedside are:

1. The heart rate is less than 60 but rarely less than 45. If it is lower than this it is likely to be complete AV block. The rate is determined by inspection, palpation, and auscultation. It is necessary to check the apical heart rate by listening to the heart sounds or palpating the apex beat for at times a patient will have a normal cardiac rate and a serious pulse deficit and therefore a slow pulse. This often occurs with frequent premature contractions.

2. A logical cause for sinus bradycardia may be present. Sinus bradycardia may be caused by senility, jaundice, increase in parasympathetic (vagal) tone, and congenital factors.

3. The history is important. Many people have congenitally slow heart rates. Bradycardia which is of recent development such as that associated with complete heart block and Stokes-Adams syndrome can be noted from the medical history.

4. Increase in vagal tone by pressure on the carotid sinuses results in retardation of the heart rate—an indication of SA control over the cardiac mechanism (Fig. 170). Ocular pressure and the gag reflex may be tried if unilateral carotid sinus pressure fails. In complete AV block an increase in vagal tone does not influence the ventricular rate as there is no parasympathetic innervation to the ventricle.

5. Exercise increases the heart rate considerably when sinus bradycardia is present. In complete or partial AV block there is little change in the ventricular rate with exercise. This is an exceedingly simple and a durable test (Fig. 171).

6 Deep inspiration and expiration should be tried as described for sinus tachycardia. A proper response indicates that the SA node is the pacemaker.

7 Change in body posture will change the heart rate.

8 Pulsations of the jugular vein are of extreme value in identification of the SA node as the pacemaker. When there is sinus bradycardia an auricular contraction precedes each ventricular one. This results in an *a* wave and *c* wave for each cardiac cycle, there being an equal number of each. With complete AV block there are more *a* waves than *c* waves, there being about twice as many. Furthermore, the *a* and *c* waves have no constant time relationship to each other.



FIG 10—Sinus bradycardia with further slowing following carotid sinus pressure—evidence in support of the SA node as the pacemaker.

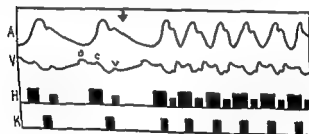


FIG 11 Sinus bradycardia with decrease in heart rate following exercise—evidence in support of the SA node as the pacemaker.

these circumstances drugs such as digitalis are encountered. Under

SINUS ARRHYTHMIA

The rate with which the SA node forms impulses varies with the respiratory rate because of variations in vagal tone associated with (Hering-

Breuer reflex) breathing. The heart rate declines near the end of inspiration and increases during the latter part of expiration. The gradual waxing and waning of the heart rate with respiration is diagnostic of sinus arrhythmia (Fig. 172). When this is noted it is almost certain that the SA node is the

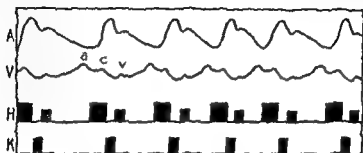


FIG. 172 — Sinus arrhythmia

pacemaker of the heart. The diagnosis may be established by demonstrating the variations with respiration.

Sinus arrhythmia is highly developed in children, becoming less prominent with age. It is relatively uncommon in the senile person. Deep breathing will produce variations in heart rate regardless of age.

Sinus arrhythmia has no clinical significance per se and requires no treatment.

PREMATURE CONTRACTIONS

(Ectopic Beats, Premystoles)

The term *premature contractions* or *premature beats* is preferred to the commonly employed terms *extrasystole* and *ectopic beats* which are satisfactory provided they are properly used. It will be seen that all these terms indicate premature contractions, but all premature contractions are not really extra contractions or ectopic in origin.

By definition all beats or contractions that occur *prematurely* or earlier than expected are premature beats. In fact this is the only criterion necessary to establish the diagnosis.

Mechanism. To understand the mechanism of premature beats or any type of disturbance in cardiac mechanism one must be thoroughly acquainted with the normal mechanism. In the normal the impulse originates from a stimulus initiated at the SA node. This stimulus starts a process of depolarization in the atrial musculature which is followed by contraction. The impulse reaches the AV node as the depolarization process where it is delayed temporarily. It is then released and passes down the bundle of His to the two bundle branches and thus into the Purkinje system where it is delivered to the subendocardial layer of ventricular musculature. A process of depolarization in this muscle is initiated which migrates perpen-

dicularly toward the epicardial surface. It is followed by a contraction of the ventricles. This chain of events occurs in the heart of the resting person about 72 times each minute. Each one is followed by a fairly constant or predictable interval of time, varying only through the influence of respiration (sinus arrhythmia). The interval of time between each cycle of events is determined by the time required by the SA node to elaborate the initiating stimulus. In *sinus bradycardia* this time is long, whereas in *sinus tachycardia* it is relatively short. Under such a chain of events the chambers of the heart contract in normal sequence.

upon the focus and time of initiation of the early impulse. This results in a disturbance in the rhythm of the heart beat (Fig. 173). The stimulus

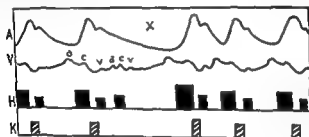


FIG. 173.—An atrial premature beat occurring early or prematurely upsetting the normal rhythm of the observed elements in a premature beat.

Therefore all premature beats are not ectopic beats.

Premature beats are essentially of three types depending upon the site of origin of the initiating stimulus.

- 1 Atrial premature contractions
- 2 Nodal (SA) premature contractions
- 3 Ventricular premature contractions

These are the clinical ones. (Certain differences are evident clinically or at the bedside however. These differences which will be noted later under their individual discussions are not sufficiently reliable to establish an irrefutable diagnosis.)

Physical examination

Breuer reflex) breathing. The heart rate declines near the end of inspiration and increases during the latter part of expiration. The gradual waxing and waning of the heart rate with respiration is diagnostic of sinus arrhythmia (Fig. 172). When this is noted it is almost certain that the SA node is the

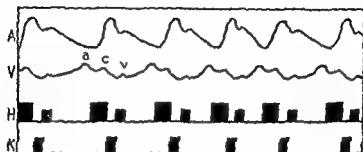


FIG. 172 — Sinus arrhythmia

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Sinus arrhythmia is highly developed in children, becoming less prominent with age. It is relatively uncommon in the senile person. Deep breathing will produce variations in heart rate regardless of age.

Sinus arrhythmia has no clinical significance *per se* and requires no treatment.

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pressure above the diastolic pressure in the aorta (Fig 17b). Therefore, the aortic valves do not open and no blood is ejected from the ventricle. When a contraction is too feeble to produce even a weak pulsation in a peripheral artery, the effect on the pulse is that of having a pulsation drop out. Often erroneously referred to by physicians as a dropped beat. The lay expression "dropped beat" refers to the compensatory pause of all premature beats. It is not a dropped beat for the heart actually contracts, as is evident from auscultation. Inspection of the jugular venous pulsations may show evidence of the premature contraction (a wave) and/or τ wave even though it is not manifested in the peripheral arteries. An early impulse is more likely to produce a feeble contraction because the muscle is in partial relaxation and therefore contracts only slightly, even though it does contract with its greatest available force.

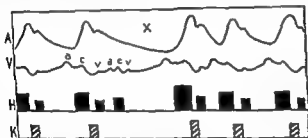


FIG 1 — The auricular premature contraction was too feeble to force blood out of the ventricle; therefore there is no second heart sound, no arterial pulse and no Korotkoff sound note (a) but recording the flow pressure.

Furthermore early contraction results in less filling and thus a weak contraction. The earlier the appearance of the premature beat the more feeble is the muscular contraction.

The two types of pulsatile manifestations described are found not only on injection of pulsating vessels or clothing pushed by these vessels but are also observed on palpation of the peripheral arteries.

The same two types of manifestations of premature beats are also obtained by auscultatory methods. Evidences of premature contractions are obtained during the routine measurement of arterial blood pressure (Fig 17b).

that is they

greater than

ing to the Korotkoff sounds will reveal a fundamental rhythm for the sound. When a premature contraction occurs which is strong enough to force a pulse wave down the artery a prematurely appearing less intense τ and will occur followed by a compensatory pause and then one of the regularly appearing sounds, which is of

are in progress. This allows for a fairly prolonged period of observation, which is often necessary when the premature beats are infrequent.

Observation of the pulsating superficial vessels of the body will reveal a regular rhythm. When a premature contraction appears, either of two things can occur:

1. There is an earlier appearance of a pulsation than would be expected by the previous rhythm. The pulsation seen is almost invariably weaker than the previous ones. This beat is weak because the ventricles are partially refractory and incompletely filled (Starling's law of the heart) and therefore contract rather feebly. Following the premature beat there is a compensatory pause. In general this is incomplete in auricular premature beats and nodal premature beats with retrograde conduction and complete in ventricular premature beats and nodal ones without retrograde conduction. The first pulsation following the compensatory pause is

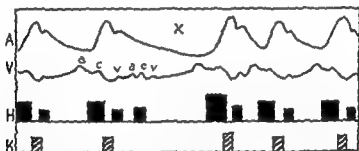


FIG. 174.—A premature contraction is weaker than those occurring normally. The earlier it occurs in the cardiac cycle the more feeble it is. The contraction following the compensatory pause is forceful because of the greater period for filling of the ventricle and therefore more ventricular filling. (Consult the text for details.) The hemodynamic phenomena occurring with the feeble contractions are feeble and those associated with the strong contraction are stronger. In this instance the premature contraction was not strong enough to produce an arterial pulse (thus second sound and Korotkoff sound absent).

usually more forceful than the regularly appearing ones. The large pulsations occur because the compensatory pause allows longer and therefore more complete ventricular filling; therefore a greater stroke volume and force occur at the time of the next ejection (Fig. 174). With more stretching there is greater force of contractions (Starling's law of the heart). A premature contraction that is stronger and later in appearance is likely to be one that is strong enough to open the aortic valves and force a column of blood and a pulse wave, with all its manifestations, to the periphery.

2. The other manifestation may consist in a basic cardiac rhythm with the premature contraction failing to produce a peripheral pulsation, thus an interval without any pulsations. The next pulsation is a strong one. The duration of this interval varies with the type of compensatory pause. The premature contraction fails to produce a peripheral pulsation when the ventricular contractions are too feeble to raise the intraventricular

is a pause and then the relatively loud sounds of the first contraction of the regular rhythm. Obviously when the contractions of the regular rhythm are also associated with the third and fourth heart sounds the grouping of the heart sounds will vary accordingly. It is not difficult to predict the groupings.

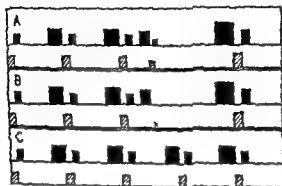


FIG. 178.—In first case

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the first
mature beat is
sound also. A f

U. S. L. B. P. T. R. M. M.



FIG. 179. A premature

At times a premature contraction may be too feeble to open the aortic valve but strong enough to open the pulmonary valve. Under such circumstances the premature beat is heard in the aortic valvular area but transmitted feebly from the pulmonary

Korotkow sounds for a moment followed by a sound of the fundamental rhythm but of greater intensity (Fig 177)

Insusculation of the heart is the most certain method of detecting premature contractions. This is done by observing the heart sounds. As indicated previously the heart sounds are produced by contraction of the heart. Therefore if the heart contracts even feebly and prematurely sounds will be produced. It follows then that the premature appearance of heart sounds indicates a premature contraction. Listening to the heart sounds will reveal a fundamental rhythm of appearance of the heart sounds.

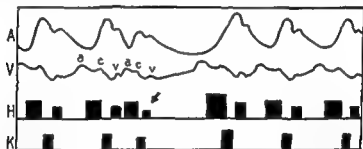


FIG 170 A premature contraction which was sufficiently strong to force blood out of the ventricles thereby resulting in a second heart sound and Korotkow sound

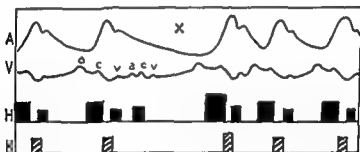


FIG 171 A premature beat too feeble to force blood out of the ventricles and therefore resulting in absence of a Korotkow sound and arterial pulse

When a premature beat occurs there is premature occurrence of heart sounds. If the contraction is strong enough to open the aortic and pulmonary valves when the ventricles go into systole followed by closure when the ventricles go into diastole there will be a premature occurrence of at least the first and second heart sounds or a grouping of four heart sounds (two of the fundamental rhythm and two of the premature beat). The latter are less intense than the regularly occurring ones (Fig 178). Following the prematurely appearing sounds is a compensatory pause. The first sounds of the fundamental rhythm which appear after the pause are more intense than the other sounds. When the premature contraction is too feeble to open the aortic and pulmonary valves only a first heart sound is heard (Fig 177). The first sound of the premature contraction is followed

Premature beats may alternate with regular beats to produce *bigeminy* (Fig 181). This type of bigeminy is characterized by

- 1 Pairing of a strong beat and an early appearing weak beat a pause and then a strong beat, weak beat, and a pause etc (Fig 181). These types of pulsations are noted in the peripheral vessels by inspection palpation and auscultation of Korotkow sounds.
- 2 The grouping of the heart sounds into groups of three or four followed by a pause. The sounds associated with the premature beat are fainter than those of the regular contraction (Fig 181).

Bigeminy may follow partial (3:2) AV block (Fig 182). In this instance



FIG 182—*Bigeminy* produced by a 3:2 AV block. Every third impulse from the atria fails to penetrate the AV node, thus resulting in asystole of the ventricles. This pause produces grouping of the ventricular contractions and arterial pulsations into pairs.

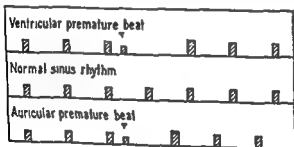


FIG 183
Early to upper
The normal

the atria contract in a regular manner. The ventricles fail to respond to every third impulse initiated by the SA node. There is a

in auricular sound which is present at a time expected according to the fundamental cardiac rhythm.

It is sometimes difficult to differentiate between premature beats of auricular and those of ventricular origin. It is important to make this distinction because the origin of premature beats is usually of after myocardial infarction.

It must also be remembered that an auricular premature contraction is not always followed by a response of the ventricles. For example, an early premature auricular beat may result in the appearance of the impulse at the AV node while it is still in the refractory period and is therefore unable to respond and transmit the impulse to the ventricles. Under such a circumstance there may be no audible sound or there may be an audible auricular sound appearing soon after the second heart sound (Fig. 180).

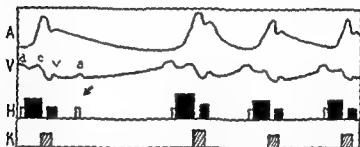


FIG. 180—When an auricular premature beat occurs early the associated impulse may reach the AV node when it is in a refractory state too great to transmit the impulse to the ventricles. The impulse is thus blocked and the ventricle remains silent and the hemodynamics associated with ventricular activity are absent. The auricular premature contraction often produces a faint audible sound (indicated by the arrow) which has the auditory effects of an echo.



FIG. 181—Illustration showing from above downward (1) auricular activity (Au) (2) ventricular activity (V) and (3) Korotkoff sounds (K) in coupling and pils bigemini due to ventricular premature beats occurring after each normal one. Consult text for details. This labeling scheme applies to all figures of this type in contrast to Figure 161.

When premature contractions occur only occasionally there is no difficulty in recognizing them. When they occur at frequent intervals and in fairly rapid succession they may be difficult to differentiate from auricular fibrillation. A fairly good test in differential diagnosis is the response to exercise. The premature beats are reduced in number or completely disappear with exercise as the fundamental rate increases. In some instances, however, especially when there is organic heart disease the premature beats are increased in number by exercise. Auricular fibrillation, on the other hand, becomes even more irregular with exercise.

of murmurs (Fig 185). The influences should be obvious to the student by now. The student should work out for himself some of the changes in the appearance of murmurs produced by premature beats.

When there are interpolated premature beats, that is, a premature beat sandwiched in between two regularly appearing beats, a true *extrasystole* or extra beat exists (Fig 186). The main differences from the usual type of premature beat are

1. There is no or a short, compensatory pause and
2. The first regular contraction following the interpolated premature beat is usually more feeble than the regular cardiac contractions.



FIG 185 — In a patient with heart murmurs, a premature contraction produces an early appearance of the murmur as shown above for an apical systolic murmur. The intensity of the murmur is reduced because the force of the premature contraction is less than that of the regularly occurring contractions. The murmur extends throughout systole in this illustration and fades with the second sound.

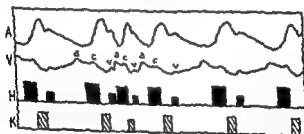


FIG 186 Illustration of an interpolated premature contraction producing an interpolation of the arterial and jugular pulses, heart sounds and Korotkoff sounds.

The cause of premature contractions is usually unknown, but they occur far more likely in patients with infections or premature beats.

Premature contractions should be

and state whether it is a

known that they are due to fatigue.

They then should be considered as strong evidence of myocardial disease. It is true,

There are certain important characteristics of ventricular premature contractions.

1. The fundamental rhythm is usually not disturbed. This is observed by the appearance on time of the regular contractions (Fig 183). The timing of the regular beats is accomplished by tapping one's foot with each pulse beat or first heart sound and continuing this through the period when the premature beat appears. The regular beat occurring after the compensatory pause will be found to be synchronous with the tapping if the premature contraction is of ventricular origin since the compensatory pause is complete and the SA node continued to initiate impulses at the regular rhythm. If there is an auricular premature contraction the beat

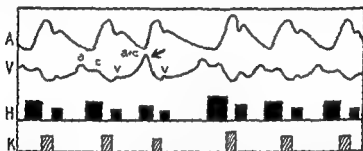


FIG. 184.—When there is a late ventricular premature contraction occurring so as to result in simultaneous contraction of the atria and ventricles a strong pulsation of the jugular vein is produced. Consult the text for details.

occurring after the compensatory pause appears earlier than expected by the rhythm tapped by the observer's foot (Fig 183). This is true because the compensatory pause after the auricular premature beat is incomplete.

2. While the jugular pulsations usually do not aid in differentiating auricular from ventricular premature beats by the appearance of the *a* waves on time in ventricular premature beats and prematurely with auricular premature beats (the *a* waves are often difficult to identify in premature contractions) such a method of differentiation should be sought as it may be useful at times. Of more importance, however, is the appearance of a large *c* wave when a ventricular premature beat coincides with an *a* wave. Under such circumstances the atria and ventricles contract simultaneously. The blood from the right atrium is unable to enter the right ventricle through the closed AV valves held closed by the high intraventricular pressure and therefore regurgitates into or enters the venous cavity producing a large or jerking type of pulsation in the jugular vein (Fig 184). The first heart sound may also be exaggerated when a ventricular premature contraction occurs simultaneously with atrial contraction (Fig 184). Under such circumstances the auricular sound exaggerates the first sound of the premature ventricular contraction.

It should be remembered that premature beats not only have their influence on the normal heart sounds but also produce a new grouping

The cause of paroxysmal tachycardia is not known. It occurs in normal people as well as in those with heart disease. Certain factors are known to predispose to the irregularity. It is known to occur with fatigue, anxiety, states of infection, organic heart disease, digestive disturbances, malnutrition, or almost any disturbance in mental or physical health.

It occurs most often between the ages of twenty and thirty but may occur at any age. It is much more common in men than women.

Classification of Paroxysmal Tachycardia—Paroxysmal tachycardia is classified according to the site of the pacemaker initiating the impulse.

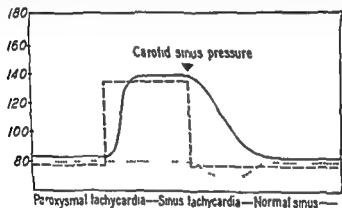


FIG. 186.—The

sinus
and
to

1. Auricular
2. Junctional or nodal (A-V)
3. Ventricular

This differentiation is usually made only with the electrocardiograph.

Paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia for treatment of

Causes

Recognition at the Bedside of Paroxysmal Tachycardia in General—The observations of the manifestations of paroxysmal tachycardia are

and are

1. *Observation of the heart sounds*, murmurs and Korotkoff sounds.
Paroxysmal tachycardia presents the following characteristics which can be elicited by palpation, percussion and auscultation (Fig. 187).

however that the cardiac disease associated with premature beats is often reversible and of little or no significance.

Treatment—The treatment of premature beats consists essentially in eliminating the precipitating and aggravating causes when possible. Drugs are resorted to only when general hygienic measures fail. If there is underlying heart disease proper management of this usually results in disappearance of the premature contractions. In brief the therapeutic procedures are essentially as follows:

- 1 *Rest*—The patient should be advised to sleep longer hours, take frequent naps or rest reclining frequently. Hard physical work should be avoided temporarily. Mental rest should be emphasized. If there is an anxiety state, it should be properly managed.
- 2 *Smoking* should be prohibited.
- 3 *Caffeine* drinks should be avoided.
- 4 *Alcohol* should not be used.
- 5 The diet should be adequate and nourishing and general hygienic measures including bowel function avoidance of overeating and the like should be instituted.
- 6 The underlying cardiac disease should be managed properly when present.
- 7 *Drugs* are to be employed as a last resort. Among those of value are:
 - (a) *Sedatives* should be given to relieve anxiety and insomnia when the foregoing measures fail. Phenobarbital (1 gram or 60 mg two or three times a day or as indicated) or sodium bromide (15 grams or 1 gram two or three times daily in the absence of congestive heart failure) may be used. Do not use these drugs too frequently.
 - (b) *Quinidine sulfate* (6 grams or 0.4 gram every two or three hours) should be used if the discomfort produced by the premature beats is annoying. Always make sure the patient is not sensitive to quinine or its derivatives. Quinidine therapy should be employed for a few days or two to three weeks then discontinued. Usually the premature beats fail to return.

Paroxysmal Tachycardia

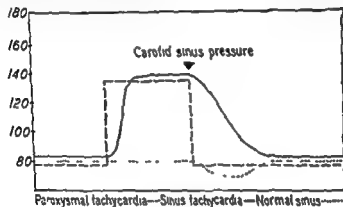
Paroxysmal tachycardia consists of paroxysms of rapid regularly occurring contractions which begin suddenly and end suddenly.

The mechanism responsible for the paroxysms of tachycardia is not well known. It is generally thought to be due to an *ectopic focus* in the heart which releases impulses in rapid succession and with absolute regularity. Some observers suggest that it may be due to a circus movement in which the circuit includes the AV or SA nodes. As the impulse passes through either of these nodes an impulse from the node initiates a wave of depolarization those originating from the SA node result in auricular tachycardia whereas those from the AV node result in nodal tachycardia. Regardless of the fundamental physiologic mechanism the clinical manifestations of the disturbance are fairly characteristic.

The cause of paroxysmal tachycardia is not known. It occurs in normal persons as well as in those with heart disease. Certain factors are known

It occurs most often between the ages of twenty and thirty but it may occur at any age. It is much more common in men than women.

Classification of Paroxysmal Tachycardia—Paroxysmal tachycardia is classified according to the site of the pacemaker initiating the impulse



- 1 Auricular
- 2 Junctional or nodal (AV)
- 3 Ventricular

This differentiation is usually made only with the electrocardiograph. Paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia for practical purposes, is

If there are not clinical signs of a theoretic difference between paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia and ventricular flutter.

Recognition at the Bedside of Paroxysmal Tachycardia in General—The observations of the manifestations of

carotid sinus pressure and the cardiac impulses

1. ro

can be elicited by palpation, percussion and auscultation (Fig 187) Korotkow sounds

- 1 The rate rarely exceeds 180 per minute in the adult. It is usually around 160 but may be more rapid or slower.
- 2 The *rhythm* is absolutely regular, one cycle varying from the other by not more than a hundredth of a second.
- 3 The *onset* and *end* of the paroxysm is *absolutely abrupt*, that is it starts and ends within one cardiac cycle. This may be elicted by careful questioning of the patient.
- 4 Variations in *parasympathetic* or *vagal* tone have either of two influences on the heart rate (Fig 188)

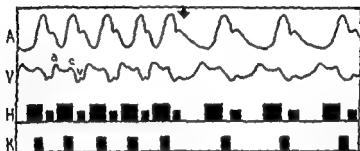


FIG 188 — Paroxysmal tachycardia with sudden retardation (within one cardiac cycle) of the heart rate following carotid sinus pressure

- (a) It does not change at all
 - (b) It changes abruptly, often stopping the paroxysm
- Vagal tone can be increased by pressing on the carotid sinuses (carotid sinus reflex) or eyeballs (oculocardiac reflex)
- 1 A change from the supine to the upright position or *vice versa* does not change the heart rate as it does when the normal pacemaker or SA node controls the mechanism. Rest, change in posture and exercise will change the rate of sinus tachycardia.

Paroxysmal tachycardia may produce *symptoms*. Among the most common are

- 1 Anxiety or apprehension and at times panic in a patient who is not aware of the significance of the tachycardia
- 2 Palpitation
- 3 Dyspnea
- 4 Dyspepsia
- 5 Precordial discomfort or even inginal pain
- 6 Weakness, fatigability, vertigo, lethargy and other manifestations of impaired cardiac output
- 7 Manifestations of left and right ventricular congestive heart failure
- 8 Delirium, coma and death may be the terminal manifestations of a

ventricular paroxysm. Should carotid sinus pressure stop a paroxysm, it can be stated definitely that the

tachycardia was not ventricular in origin for there is no parasympathetic innervation to the ventricles

Paroxysmal auricular tachycardia may be associated with a variable AV block. This results in irregular ventricular contraction (Fig. 189) which is often difficult to differentiate from auricular fibrillation. If there are *a* waves in the jugular pulse or auricular sounds are heard, then auricular fibrillation does not exist (Fig. 190)



FIG. 189 Paroxysmal tachycardia with a variable AV block showing the regularity of auricular activity and irregularity of ventricular contraction and the peripheral pulse



FIG. 190—Auricular fibrillation with extreme variation in the time of appearance and force of the ventricular contractions and the peripheral arterial pulse. This should be compared with figure 189. Consult the text for differential diagnosis

Paroxysmal tachycardia is difficult to differentiate from auricular flutter. The main differences are

1. Auricular flutter has a more rapid auricular rate (240 or more) and as a rule a ventricular rate half that of the auricular rate due to a 2:1 AV block. This may be determined at times by observing that the *a* waves in the jugular pulse occur twice as frequently as the heart beats or radial pulsations although it is doubtful that the *a* waves can be identified and counted at such a rate.
2. Pressure on the carotid sinuses stops or retards auricular flutter for only a short time. The original rate is resumed jerkily just as soon as or even before pressure is released.

Occasional attacks of paroxysmal tachycardia have no clinical significance in themselves unless they persist long enough to produce congestive heart failure or death. Ventricular tachycardia should not be considered normal but auricular and nodal tachycardia are frequently present in normal persons. The underlying cardiac state determines the significance of the paroxysms of tachycardia.

Treatment—The treatment of paroxysmal tachycardia is about the same as that for premature contractions. The general measures of rest, hygiene, abstinence from tobacco, alcohol or caffeine drinks, proper sedation etc. should be emphasized. Any underlying cardiac state should

- 1 The *rate* rarely exceeds 180 per minute in the adult. It is usually around 160 but may be more rapid or slower.
- 2 The *rhythm* is absolutely regular, one cycle varying from the other by not more than a hundredth of a second.
- 3 The *onset* and *end* of the paroxysm is *absolutely abrupt*, that is it starts and ends within one cardiac cycle. This may be elicited by careful questioning of the patient.
- 4 Variations in *parasympathetic* or *vagal* tone have either of two influences on the heart rate (Fig. 188).

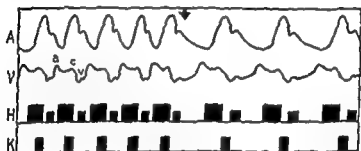


FIG. 188.—Paroxysmal tachycardia with sudden retardation (within one cardiac cycle) of the heart rate following carotid sinus pressure.

(a) It does not change at all.

(b) It changes abruptly, often stopping the paroxysm.

Vagal tone can be increased by pressing on the carotid sinuses (carotid sinus reflex) or eyeballs (oculocardiac reflex).

- 1 A change from the supine to the upright position or *vice versa* does not change the heart rate as it does when the normal pacemaker or SA node controls the mechanism. Rest, change in posture and exercise will change the rate of sinus tachycardia.

Paroxysmal tachycardia may produce *symptoms*. Among the most common are

- 1 Anxiety or apprehension and at times panic in a patient who is not aware of the significance of the tachycardia.

2 Palpitation

3 Dyspnea

4 Dyspepsia

5

6

7

8

anginal pain

9 lethargy and other manifestations

ventricular congestive heart failure

be the terminal manifestations of a

prolonged episode

It is impossible to differentiate auricular, nodal and ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia with certainty without an electrocardiogram. Should carotid sinus pressure stop a paroxysm, it can be stated definitely that the

pulse is delivered to the AV node. The node is not able to respond to each impulse reaching it so that a 2:1, 3:1 or variable block occurs; thus the ventricular rate is slower than the auricular rate. The ventricular rate is usually one-half to one-third the auricular rate. Auricular flutter is rarely found in normal hearts. It is most often associated with hyperthyroidism, mitral stenosis, arteriosclerosis and hypertension. The highest total incidence is in arteriosclerosis whereas the highest percentage incidence is found in hyperthyroidism and mitral stenosis. It occurs at any age and is four times more frequent in men than in women. Infections, tobacco, coffee drinks and mental and physical fatigue predispose to auricular flutter.

Bedside Diagnosis. The recognition of auricular flutter is sometimes possible although the mechanism cannot always be identified with certainty. It is recognized clinically by the methods described for premature contractions, that is, inspection and palpation of pulsating vessels and the precordium and auscultation of the heart and Korotkoff sounds.

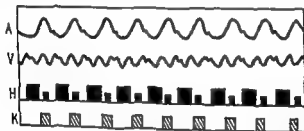


FIG. 191.—Auricular flutter showing the arterial and jugular pulses, heart sounds and Korotkoff sounds.

Clinical characteristics

1. A careful history will reveal that the patient

2. If the patient

does not

at rest or exercise it is almost certainly auricular flutter. The auricular rate may be rapid for such long periods of time without undue cardiac embarrassment because there may be over 300

✓ 3

of 300 or more and P waves or a ventricular rate of 100 or strongly

4. 9 mm

5

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be promptly and adequately treated. Any underlying systemic disease known to produce paroxysmal tachycardia, such as hyperthyroidism, should be alleviated when possible. Should the paroxysms occur at frequent intervals or last for prolonged periods of time, more specific drugs should be employed.

1. *Carotid sinus or ocular pressure* should be tried before any drugs are employed. An increase in vagal tone is usually sufficient to arrest a paroxysm of tachycardia. Touching the pharynx to produce gagging may also be tried to increase vagal tone. Vomiting is particularly unpleasant during the paroxysms, however.
2. *Quinidine sulfate* in adequate doses must be tried. For the usual patient 6 grains (0.4 gram) administered orally every two or three hours is sufficient. The dose is then reduced to 6 grains (0.4 gram) three or four times daily. This may be continued for several days or a few weeks if necessary. For an episode that has been prolonged and is beginning to produce signs of congestive heart failure, the dose should be increased to 6 grains (0.4 gram) every hour or two until the paroxysm stops or signs of intoxication develop. It is necessary to run the risk of intoxication when a patient is developing failure for death will certainly ensue if the tachycardia persists. Fear of the use of quinidine is far greater than is warranted by clinical experience. Once a paroxysm has stopped, the drug should be continued for several days in doses of 6 grains (0.4 gram) every three or four hours to prevent recurrence. Quinidine is the drug of choice. It may be administered intravenously in doses of 5 to 6 grains (0.3 to 0.4 gram) every three hours if oral administration fails or is contraindicated.
3. *Acetyl beta methyl choline* in doses of 20 to 30 mg. is recommended and used by some clinicians with success. The dose may be repeated in two or three hours if necessary. If large doses of quinidine fail, acetyl beta methyl choline is unlikely to produce results.
4. *Digitalis* is employed by many clinicians to arrest the paroxysms even if congestive heart failure is not present. It is indicated if congestive heart failure is present and should be administered as outlined for this disease. Digitalis is more likely to be effective if organic heart disease is present. It should be used cautiously if at all in the presence of paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia, as there is a possibility that the tachycardia will be converted to ventricular fibrillation.

Auricular Flutter

Auricular flutter is a disturbance in cardiac mechanism which is associated with an absolutely regular atrial rate of 240 beats or more per minute. It is contended by some to be due to a regular circus movement in the atrium, whereas recent studies suggest that the impulses arise from a single ectopic focus. Each time a wave of activity is completed, another impulse is initiated which results in an auricular contraction, and an im-

Auricular fibrillation is considered to be due to numerous circus movements or 'islets' of contracting auricular muscle which may be in any stage of depolarization or repolarization. As a result the atria remain distended (in diastole) and merely quiver, undulate, twitch or fibrillate but never contract completely to empty themselves of blood. The AV node is therefore receiving many impulses of extremely variable intensity and timing. Those that reach the node when it is refractory or relatively refractory fail to pass through to the ventricle. The weaker impulses particularly fail to initiate an AV impulse. Because of the irregular conduction of impulses to the ventricle the ventricular rate is irregular. Furthermore the earlier the impulse reaches the ventricular musculature, the greater will be the state of refraction and the greater the refraction the less force of contraction. The variations in the force of contraction result in an

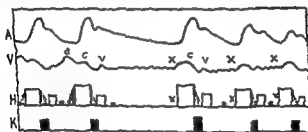


Fig. 133—The arterial pulse, jugular pulse, heart sounds, and Korotkoff sounds.

identical variation in the force of the pulsations in the peripheral vessels, intensity of the heart sounds and intensity of Korotkoff sounds. There is therefore, in absolute irregularity in ventricular activity and irregularity in the rate and force of the arterial pulse. Fibrillation may occur in short paroxysms of a few seconds, minutes, hours or days or may be chronic and persist for many years.

The cause of auricular fibrillation is not clear. It varies much like auricular flutter in its incidence, occurring especially in hyperthyroidism, mitral stenosis, arteriosclerosis and hypertension. It occurs most often in older people but it can occur at any age. It is more common in men than in women. It is frequently precipitated by infections, congestive heart failure, myocardial infarction, etc.

6 Exercise will cause the ventricular rate to increase and become regular if variable AV block is present

The differential diagnosis is usually difficult. It is most often confused with simple paroxysmal tachycardia. The characteristics listed previously for the two mechanisms serve to differentiate them.

Auricular flutter with irregular AV block is often confused with auricular fibrillation. The differentiation is simple. A mild degree of exercise increases the ventricular rate and makes it regular, a characteristic never present in auricular fibrillation (Fig. 192).



FIG. 192.—Comparison of auricular flutter with a variable AV block with auricular fibrillation. Wedge indicates onset of change from emotional excitement or exercise. Consult the text for details.

Auricular flutter with a variable AV block may be confused with multiple and rapidly occurring premature contractions. Exercise usually changes both mechanisms to a regular rhythm, but in auricular flutter less exercise brings about the change, and the increase in rate tends to be out of proportion to the degree of exercise. With multiple premature beats the irregularity may be increased at times or the mechanism may return to a regular rhythm with relatively little increase in rate.

The symptoms produced by auricular flutter are essentially the same as those described previously for paroxysmal tachycardia. Syncope may be a prominent feature of the symptom complex.

Auricular flutter is a sign of heart disease; the underlying cardiac state determines the significance of the heart disease rather than the flutter itself.

Treatment—The treatment of paroxysmal auricular flutter is the same as that described for paroxysmal tachycardia, except that acetyl beta-methyl choline and measures to increase vagal tone are not employed therapeutically. If the auricular flutter tends to be chronic and fails to respond to the other measures, then digitalis should be administered in the hope of converting the flutter to fibrillation. Once this has been achieved the ventricular rate can be maintained at about 70 to 80 a rate which is not deleterious. The mechanism frequently reverts to normal following digitalis therapy.

Auricular Fibrillation

Auricular fibrillation is a disturbance in mechanism due to many separate circus movements or numerous foci initiating impulses in the atria which results in incomplete isolated auricular contractions at a rate of about 300 per minute. The ventricular rate is variable and the rhythm and force of contractions are absolutely irregular.

Auricular fibrillation is considered to be due to numerous circus movements as islets of contracting auricular muscle which may be in any stage of depolarization or repolarization. As a result the atria remain dilated (in diastole) and merely quiver undulate twitch or fibrillate but never contract completely to empty themselves of blood. The AV node is therefore receiving many impulses of extremely variable intensity and timing. Those that reach the node when it is refractory or relatively refractory fail to pass through to the ventricle. The weaker impulses particularly fail to initiate an AV impulse. Because of the irregular conduction of impulses to the ventricle the ventricular rate is irregular. Furthermore the earlier the impulse reaches the ventricular musculature the greater will be the state of refraction and the greater the refraction the less force of contraction. The variations in the force of contraction result in an

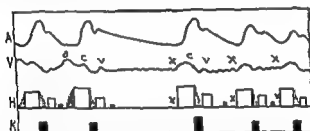


FIG. 193. The arterial pulse, jugular pulse, heart sound, and murmur of Korotkow sounds in mitral stenosis with a normal sinus rhythm changing to a fibrillar fibrillation. The 'x' marks the absence of a waves and late diastolic crescendo murmurs with the fibrillation because of the lack of organized and complete contraction of the atria.

identical variation in the force of the pulsations in the peripheral vessels intensity of the heart sounds and intensity of Korotkow sounds. There is therefore an absolute irregularity in ventricular activity and irregularity in the rate and force of the arterial pulse. Fibrillation may occur in short paroxysms of a few seconds, minutes, hours or days or may be chronic and persist for many years.

The cause of auricular fibrillation is not clear. It varies much like auricular flutter in its incidence occurring especially in hyperthyroidism, mitral stenosis, arteriosclerosis and hypertension. It occurs most often in older people but it can occur at any age. It is more common in men than in women. It is frequently precipitated by infections, congestive heart failure, myocardial infarction, tobacco, caffeine, etc.

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the method of inducing auricular fibrillation at the bedside is slow

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1 Virtual paralysis of the atria

2 Disturbance in ventricular contraction

Because of failure of the atria to contract, there are no a waves in the pulsations of the jugular veins, no auricular or fourth heart sound, and no murmur which is dependent upon auricular systole (Fig. 19a). The latter two are especially important diagnostically if either or both were present before the onset of the irregularity and are subsequently found to be absent. Furthermore, if a fourth or auricular heart sound or a late diastolic crescendo murmur is heard, auricular fibrillation cannot exist. If a waves are identified, auricular fibrillation cannot exist. It is obvious therefore that

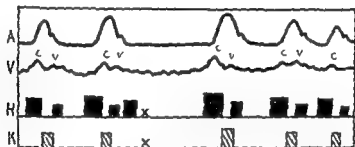


FIG. 19b—Illustration of variations in rhythm and force of the arterial and jugular pulses and heart sounds and Korotkow sounds in auricular fibrillation



FIG. 19a—Auricular fibrillation with a pulse deficit due to the feeble ventricular contractions being unable to eject blood into the aorta from the left ventricle. The X marks the absence of arterial pulsations

the auricular paralysis is of considerable or of greatest diagnostic importance. A concerted search for the presence or absence of auricular activity should be made.

The nature of the ventricular contractions is usually sufficient to establish the diagnosis of auricular fibrillation. It is however not nearly as certain as the demonstration of auricular paralysis. As indicated previously, the ventricular contractions are (1) irregular in timing or rhythm, and (2) irregular in force. These changes manifest themselves in the pulsations in the peripheral vessels, heart sounds, and Korotkow sounds (Fig. 19b). These manifestations are detected by inspecting and palpating the peripheral arteries, jugular veins, and precordial pulsations due to the heart *per se*. Auscultation of the heart reveals the variations in timing and intensity of the sounds. The same is true with the Korotkow sounds when the blood pressure is being recorded.

The peripheral arterial pulsations show the following (Fig 195). The pulsations appear at variable periods of time and they vary in intensity. The closer one occurs to a previous one the more feeble the pulsation (Fig 195). Some of the ventricular contractions are too feeble even to force blood through the aortic valve thus resulting in a ventricular contraction without an associated arterial pulsation. Such an occurrence is known as a *pulse deficit*. It is for this reason that a determination of the arterial pulse rate is no index of the rate of ventricular contractions and why the *apical heart rate must be counted*. Furthermore a ventricular contraction that is too feeble to force blood into the arteries not only is useless but fatigues and overworks the heart unnecessarily. The greater the pulse deficit the less efficient is the circulation.

The jugular pulsations show irregularly occurring c and v waves but no a waves (Fig 196). The extremely feeble ventricular contractions may fail to produce a waves in the jugular pulse.

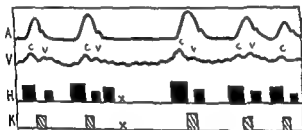


FIG 196 — Jugular fibrillation with irregularly appearing c and v waves without any a waves

The blood pressure determination presents evidence of articular fibrillation in that the Korotkoff sound vary considerably in intensity and timing (Fig 196). Because of the great variations in intensity of the force with which the ventricles pump blood to the periphery, the blood pressure cannot be recorded accurately and must be estimated. For example during recording of the blood pressure the pressure within the pneumatic cuff is brought to a level sufficient to exclude all Korotkoff sounds below the cuff. As a gradual lowering of the pressure within the cuff a pressure level is reached where only an occasional strong ventricular contraction forces blood through and a sound is produced. When the pressure is lowered further the sound appears as the fifth phase is

Auscultation of the heart reveals wide variations in intensity and timing of the sounds. When the ventricular contractions are too feeble to force blood through the aortic valve, the sound is not heard.

from the hemodynamics concerned (Fig 198). There will be no auricular heart sound or late diastolic crescendo murmur because of the auricular paralysis.

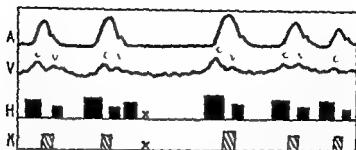


FIG 197—Auricular fibrillation showing the variations in intensity and timing of the arterial and jugular pulses, heart sounds and Korotkoff sound. These phenomena are more feeble when ventricular contractions occur early and more intense when there is a long interval between contractions. Such occurrences are physiologically obvious.

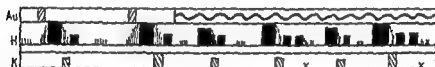


FIG 198—Normal sinus mechanism changed suddenly to auricular fibrillation with variations in timing and intensities of murmurs in mitral insufficiency and stenosis. The late diastolic crescendo murmur disappears with the onset of auricular fibrillation.

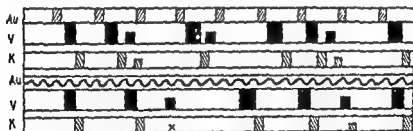


FIG 199—Comparison of normal sinus rhythm with frequent premature contractions with auricular fibrillation. (Consult the text for detail.)

Auricular fibrillation may be confused with

- 1 Multiple and frequent premature beats
- 2 Auricular flutter with a variable AV block
- 3 Paroxysmal tachycardia with a variable AV block

Differentiation between auricular fibrillation and frequent premature contractions (Fig 199)

(a) Following exercise, premature beats usually disappear and the rhythm becomes regular, whereas it usually increases the irregularity in auricular

fibrillation (b) If an irregularity exists at a rate of 120 or more, then it is most likely to be auricular fibrillation (c) If auricular or fourth sounds are heard auricular fibrillation does not exist and premature contractions are probably present (d) The presence of a pre-systolic crescendo murmur at the apex eliminates auricular fibrillation as the mechanistic disorder (e) The presence of a waves in the jugular pulse rules out auricular fibrillation

Differentiation between auricular fibrillation and auricular flutter with variable AV block (Fig. 200)



FIG. 200 Comparison of auricular flutter with a variable AV block with auricular fibrillation. Consult the text for details.

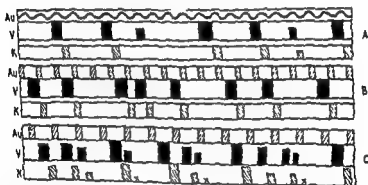


FIG. 201 - Comparison of auricular fibrillation with sinus tachycardia with a variable AV block. B is the normal sinus rhythm and frequent ventricular premature contractions.

1 After exercise the auricular flutter with variable block becomes regular as the AV conduction is made constant. Auricular fibrillation is made more irregular by exercise.

2 The presence of a waves auricular or fourth heart sound or a pre-systolic crescendo murmur eliminates auricular fibrillation as these cannot exist with auricular paralysis.

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from the hemodynamics concerned (Fig 198). There will be no auricular heart sound or late diastolic crescendo murmur because of the auricular paralysis.

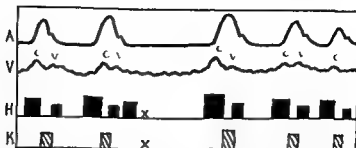


FIG 197—Auricular fibrillation showing the variations in intensity and timing of the arterial and jugular pulses, heart sounds and Korotkoff sounds. The *c* phenomena are more feeble when ventricular contractions occur early and more intense when there is a long interval between contractions. Such occurrences are physiologically obvious.



FIG 198—Normal sinus mechanism changed suddenly to auricular fibrillation with variations in timing and intensities of murmurs in mitral insufficiency and stenosis. The late diastolic crescendo murmur disappears with the onset of auricular fibrillation.

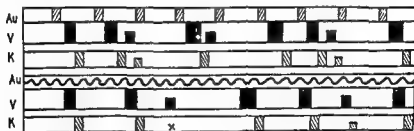


FIG 199—Comparison of normal sinus rhythm with frequent ventricular premature contractions with auricular fibrillation. Consult the text for detail.

Auricular fibrillation may be confused with

- 1 Multiple and frequent premature beats
- 2 Auricular flutter with a variable AV block
- 3 Paroxysmal tachycardia with a variable AV block

Differentiation between auricular fibrillation and frequent premature contractions (Fig 199)

(a) Following exercise, premature beats usually disappear and the rhythm becomes regular, whereas it usually increases the irregularity in auricular

likely to persist. It is a sign of left ventricular failure and is of great significance. When due to organic heart disease it usually carries a life expectancy of six months. When compensation occurs the alternation usually disappears.

Rapid tachycardia such as paroxysmal tachycardia is often associated with alternation. This alternation disappears when the rate returns to normal. This type of alternation is of no significance in itself, usually resulting from the fatigue produced by tachycardia. Excessive amounts of digitalis may also produce alternation. This type of alternation is reversible as cessation of digitalis therapy results in a return to the normal mechanism.

The diagnosis of pulsus alternans is not difficult (Fig. 202). It has been described in detail with the other reliable signs of heart disease. With the strong contraction a large volume of blood is ejected and a strong pulsation occurs in the arteries. The following day the heart contracts by the weaker cor-
alternating weak.

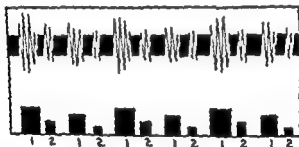


FIG. 202. Pulsus alternans. The heart sounds are alternately intense and feeble, the former occurring with the strong contractions and the latter with the feeble ones. Consult the text for details.

eral arteries. When the differences are great enough to be noted by inspection or palpation the blood pressure difference is at least 20 mm. of mercury. The differences in strength and volume of the alternating pulsation may be observed in the jugular pulsations. On a case of the heart
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1 Pressure on the carotid sinuses may revert the paroxysmal tachycardia to a normal rhythm but has no effect on auricular fibrillation. Therefore a return to a normal mechanism following carotid sinus pressure eliminates auricular fibrillation.

2 Evidence of auricular contraction obtained by observing a waves in the jugular pulsations, auricular or fourth heart sound and a presystolic crescendo murmur rules out auricular fibrillation.

3 Runs of absolutely regular rhythm a likely and frequent occurrence even with a variable AV block indicate paroxysmal tachycardia and eliminate auricular fibrillation.

The *symptomatology of auricular fibrillation* is essentially the same as that described for auricular flutter and paroxysmal tachycardia and will not be reviewed again.

Auricular fibrillation is a sign of heart disease the significance is determined by the underlying cardiac disease. Patients may have paroxysmal auricular fibrillation for short periods of time or chronic fibrillation for many years the underlying cardiac state determines the patient's limitations. When auricular fibrillation exists for many weeks thrombosis occurs along the walls within the distended paralyzed auricles. At times emboli escape producing clinical disturbances determined by the location of the emboli.

Treatment—The treatment of auricular fibrillation is similar to that described for auricular flutter and paroxysmal tachycardia except that acetyl beta methyl choline and measures to increase vagal tone are never employed therapeutically. When *quinidine sulfate* fails to arrest the fibrillation digitalis is the drug of choice. Quinidine arrests fibrillation more readily if it is of short duration. The patient with a rapid ventricular rate or congestive heart failure should receive digitalis according to the method of administration described previously. The object is to produce compensation if failure exists to maintain a ventricular rate of 70 to 80 and to reduce the pulse deficit to a minimum. Maintenance doses of digitalis should be continued as long as fibrillation exists.

Alternation of the Heart

Alternation of the heart consists of alternating strong and weak contractions.

The *mechanism* is not well known but it is produced by organic heart disease. Because of the disease each alternating beat is associated with a contraction of all of the ventricular musculature the other alternating contraction being associated with a contraction of only a portion of the ventricular muscle. When all of the muscle contracts a large volume of blood is ejected with a normal or great force whereas contraction of only a portion of the ventricular muscle is followed by ejection of only a small volume of blood under less pressure.

When it is caused by organic heart disease the alternation is more

usually strong. The jugular pulse is free from *c* and *r* waves at the moment of the AV blocking. An *a* wave is noted since the auricles contract (Fig. 205). On auscultation of the heart no first and second sounds are heard when the block occurs, as there is no ventricular contraction (Fig. 205). In other words, there is a 'dropped ventricular beat'. The auricular sound may be heard. During recording of the arterial blood pressure, no Korotkoff sound is heard for that cycle in which the auricular impulse is blocked at the AV node and the ventricles fail to contract.

If there is a 2:1 block, this occurs with every other beat, that is, one auricular impulse is conducted to the ventricles and initiates a ventricular contraction whereis the alternating one is not (Fig. 205). The findings should be obvious for 3:1, 4:1, 12:11 or any sort of AV block in which an auricular impulse fails to pass the AV node.



FIG. 204. Wenckebach periods of varying the progressive separation of the atrial and ventricular contractions. The arrow indicates failure of the auricular impulse to penetrate the AV node with resultant failure of the ventricles to contract and the arterial pulse.

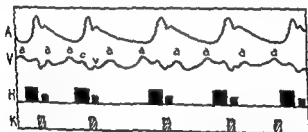


FIG. 205. Partial 2:1 AV block. Note absence of ventricular hemodynamic phenomena when each alternate impulse from the atria is blocked at the AV node.

3. Complete heart (1:1) block is not difficult to recognize clinically. The findings of diagnostic importance are:

a. A history of Stokes-Adams attacks when the AV block occurs suddenly. If true syncope does not occur, there is usually an episode of faintness with the onset of the block.

b. The auricular rate (determined from the *a* waves in the jugular pulse, auricular heart sound, *systoles en echo*, or *precordial* —)

is about twice the ventricular rate (or Korotkoff sounds). The ventricular rate is 1/2 the auricular rate.

Heart Block

Heart block consists of a delay or absence of ventricular response to the auricular impulse.

It is produced by impairment of conduction through the AV node, bundle of His or the two main bundle branches. Because of this delay or impairment the time relation of auricular and ventricular contractions varies. The degree and location of the block also varies. The various types of block which may be recognized at the bedside are:

1. Incomplete AV block (delayed AV conduction)
2. Partial AV block (2:1, 3:1, 4:1, etc.)
3. Complete heart (AV) block

The cause of heart block is usually the conduction tissue. The common diphtheria, myocarditis of any sort, anomalies and arteriosclerosis. All of these factors produce acute or chronic change in the conduction tissue. Infectious diseases, fatigue, tobacco, alcohol, and caffeine beverages will precipitate heart block. It is also produced by overdigitalization and by overdoses of quinidine.

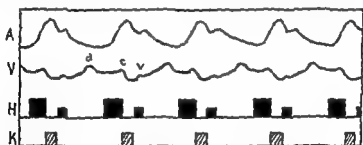


FIG. 203.—Incomplete AV block with delayed AV nodal conduction. Note the wide separation of the a wave in the jugular pulse from the c and v waves.

Heart block occurs at any age, the age incidence varying with the cause. Because of the high incidence of arteriosclerosis in individuals after the age of fifty years, heart block is more common in this age group. It is more common in men than in women.

The Diagnosis of Heart Block. 1. The recognition of delayed AV conduction is usually difficult clinically. When the heart rate is not rapid and the delay fairly long, it is sometimes possible to recognize an a wave in the jugular pulse which is widely separated from the c wave (Fig. 203). If there is an auricular heart sound or late diastolic crescendo murmur, these may be widely separated from the first heart sound.

2. **Partial AV block** is not difficult to recognize. In the peripheral arterial pulse a complete pulsation drops out when the impulse from the auricles is blocked at the AV node (Fig. 204). The regularly occurring pulse is felt. When the auricular impulse at the AV node is blocked, it is felt as a pause in the pulse.

visible jerky pulsation of the jugular vein but also a peculiar sensation to the patient.

Heart block of any type is indicative of serious heart disease. Most patients with complete heart block die within a few months although some patients have lived many years. The prognosis should be determined by the underlying cardiac disease and fitness of the heart muscle. The younger patient with good cardiac muscle is more likely to survive many years where the old patient with coronary sclerosis is likely to die early and suddenly.

Treatment — The treatment of heart block consists essentially in

- 1 Rest mental and physical
- 2 Proper hygienic measures necessary important to all people
- 3 Proper care of the underlying cardiac disease and its complications, such as congestive heart failure
- 4 Management of *persistent block* requires no specific measures. Do not employ drugs that impair AV nodal conduction or depress the cardiac muscle such as digitalis and quinidine unless absolutely necessary.
- 5 The *onset* of high grades of heart block particularly complete heart block requires no treatment *per se*. If a physician is present when complete AV block sets in and ventricular systole exists the intracardiac injection of 0.5 to 1.0 cc. of epinephrine may save the patient's life. Benzedrine sulfate or ephedrine sulfate should be employed if there are repeated episodes of Stokes-Adams syndrome. Oxygen is of considerable value when the ventricular rate is slow and the circulation is seriously reduced. Patients who are prone to syncope should be warned never to climb to high levels with near the edge of boats or undertake any task where unconsciousness may cost them their lives.

taneously, a "booming" sound (*bruit de canon*) is heard. At the time of simultaneous auricular and ventricular contraction the auricle cannot eject its blood into the ventricle (its pressure holds the tricuspid valve closed) so that the blood is forced into the superior vena cava and jugular vein. This results in a "jerking" type of jugular pulsation.

The jugular pulsations show waxing and waning with respiration. This is strongly suggestive evidence of complete heart block.

The symptoms produced by heart block are the result of

- (1) The underlying cardiac disease
- (2) The impaired peripheral circulation

The factors concerned in (1) have already been discussed. The symptoms produced by the impaired peripheral circulation (2) are of two types

- (a) Those due to the sudden ventricular slowing
- (b) Those due to the chronically slow ventricular rate

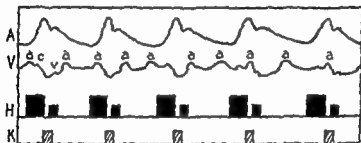


FIG. 206—Complete A-V block. Note the complete dissociation of the atrial and ventricular hemodynamic activity. The atrial hemodynamic events are essentially twice as rapid as the ventricular ones. Study this figure carefully.

When complete A-V block occurs there is a period of ventricular standstill. This suddenly results in an inadequate and less than customary supply of blood to the tissues. Since the central nervous system is particularly sensitive to impairment of blood supply, syncope, and sometimes convulsions follow. The sudden syncope is known as the *Stokes-Adams syndrome*. The idioventricular rhythm which is established then ensures ventricular contractions at a slow rate. This starts the circulation again. The central nervous system then receives blood, and the patient becomes conscious.

Because of the slow ventricular rate, the total circulation to the tissues is reduced, and all tissues function with less efficiency. This is well manifested by skeletal muscle weakness, lethargy, and cerebral moribundity occur. When the ventricular rate is between 10 and 20, extreme weakness and then unconsciousness supervene. Pallor, stertorous breathing, muscular twitchings, convulsions, and death may follow periods of apnea lasting fifteen seconds or more. The convulsions often create diagnostic confusion with idiopathic epilepsy.

The patient may be conscious of bradycardia because of the volume and vigor of each ventricular ejection, both explained by Starling's law of the heart. The synchronous contraction of the atria and ventricles with the resultant ejection of the atrial blood into the neck not only produces a

APPENDIX

The Nomenclature and Classification of Heart Disease as advanced by the New York and American Heart Associations. The book, "Nomenclature and Criteria for Diagnosis of Diseases of the Heart," is an excellent one which should be studied by every student.

ETIOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS

- 1 Anemia
- 2 " "
- 3 " "
- 4 " "
- 5 " "
- 6 " "
- 7 Hyperthyroidism¹
- 8 Hypothyroidism
- 9 Neoplasm
- 10 Other etiological factor (to be specified)
- 11 Psychoneurosis
- 12 Pulmonary disease (to be specified)
- 13 Reflex action
- 14 Rheumatic fever¹
- 15 Syphilis¹
- 16 Thoracic deformity
- 17 Toxic agent (specify if possible)
- 18 Trauma
- 19 Unknown

ANATOMICAL DIAGNOSIS

Diseases of Aorta and Pulmonary Arteries

- 1 Aneurysm (specify location)
- 2 Aortitis
- 3 Arteriosclerosis of aorta
 - (a) Without dilatation
 - (b) With dilatation
- 4 " "

¹ When one of these diagnoses is used it should be stated, if possible, whether the etiological factor is still active or in remission.



APPENDIX

The Nomenclature and Classification of Heart Disease as advanced by the New York and American Heart Associations. The book, "Nomenclature and Criteria for Diagnosis of Diseases of the Heart," is an excellent one which should be studied by every student.

ETIOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS

- 1 Anemia
- 2 Arteriosclerosis
- 3 Diabetes mellitus
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7 Hyperthyroidism¹
- 8 Hypothyroidism
- 9 Neoplasm
- 10 Other etiological factors (to be specified)
- 11 Psychoneurosis
- 12 Pulmonary disease (to be specified)
- 13 Reflex action
- 14 Rheumatic fever¹
- 15 Syphilis¹
- 16 Thoracic deformity
- 17 Toxic agent (specify if possible)
- 18 Trauma
- 19 Unknown

ANATOMICAL DIAGNOSIS

Diseases of Aorta and Pulmonary Arteries

- 1 Aneurysm (specify location)
- 2 Aortitis
- 3 Arteriosclerosis of aorta
 - (a) Without dilatation
 - (b) With dilatation
- 4 Arteriosclerosis of pulmonary arteries
- 5 Congenital anomaly (specify if possible)
- 6

¹ When one of these diagnoses is used, it should be stated, if possible, whether the etiological factor is still active or is inactive.

Diseases of Coronary Arteries

- 13 Arteriosclerosis of coronary arteries
 - (a) With narrowing
 - (b) With occlusion
- 14 Arteritis of coronary arteries
- 15 Congenital anomaly of coronary arteries
- 16 Embolism of coronary artery
- 17 Injury of coronary artery (specify character of lesion)
- 18 Other disease of coronary arteries (specify)
- 19 Periarteritis nodosa of coronary arteries
- 20 Stenosis of coronary ostium
- 21 Thrombosis of coronary artery

Diseases of Myocardium

(Including Conduction System and Heart as a Whole)

- 22 Aneurysm of heart (specify location)
- 23 Atrophy of heart
- 24 " " " " " "
- 25
- 26
 - (a) Dilatation
 - (b) Hypertrophy
- 27 Fatty infiltration of heart
- 28 Fibrosis of myocardium
- 29 Infarct of myocardium
 - (a) Recent
 - (b) Healed
- 30 Injury of heart (specify character of lesion)
- 31 " " " " " "
- 32 "
- 33
- 34
- 35
- 36
- 37 possible)

Diseases of Endocardium and Valves

- 38 " " " " " " (specify lesion if possible)
- 39
- 40
- 41 lenta) (specify organism)
- 42
- 43
- 44 "
- 45 Other structural disease (specify location if possible)
- 46
- 47 location if possible)
- 48
- 49
- 50
- 51

- (d) Mitral stenosis
- (e) Pulmonic insufficiency
- (f) Pulmonic stenosis
- (g) Tricuspid insufficiency
- (h) Tricuspid stenosis

Diseases of Pericardium

59 Cystic degeneration of heart

60 Pericarditis, acute

- (a) Fibrinous
- (b) Serofibrinous
- (c) Suppurative

61 Pneumopericardium

PHYSIOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS

(Cardiac Mechanism)

- 1 Arrhythmia (undetermined)
- 2 Auricular fibrillation
 - (a) Paroxysmal
 - (b) Persistent
- 3 Auricular flutter
 - (a) Paroxysmal
 - (b) Persistent
- 4 Auriculoventricular block
 - (a) Prolonged conduction time
 - (b) Incomplete
 - (c) Complete
- 5 Atrial tachycardia
- 6 Atrial fibrillation
- 7 Atrial flutter
- 8 Atrial premature contractions
 - (b) Atrial ventricular nodal (junctional)
 - (c) Ventricular
 - (d) Unknown origin
- 9 Premature contractions
 - (a) Auricular
 - (b) Auriculoventricular nodal (junctional)
 - (c) Ventricular
 - (d) Unknown origin
- 10 Sinus arrest
- 11 Sinus arrhythmia
- 12 Sinus tachycardia
- 13 Sinus rhythm normal
- 14 Sinus bradycardia

- 15 Ventricular escape
- 16 Ventricular fibrillation
- 17 Wandering pacemaker
- 18 Valvular incompetence
 - (a) Aortic incompetence
 - (b) Mitral incompetence
 - (c) Pulmonic incompetence
 - (d) Tricuspid incompetence

Clinical Syndromes

- 19 Adams-Stokes syndrome
- 20 Anginal syndrome
- 21 Cardiac insufficiency
- 22 Carotid sinus syndrome
- 23 Pulsus alternans
- 24 Paroxysmal dyspnea
- 25 Paroxysmal pulmonary edema

FUNCTIONAL CAPACITY

- Class I (Formerly I*) Patients with a cardiac disorder* without limitation of physical activity. Ordinary physical activity causes no discomfort.
- Class II (Formerly II*) Patients with a cardiac disorder with slight to moderate limitation of physical activity. Ordinary physical activity causes discomfort.
- Class III (Formerly IIb*) Patient with a cardiac disorder with moderate to great limitation of physical activity. Less than ordinary physical activity causes discomfort.
- Class IV (Formerly III*) Patients with a cardiac disorder unable to carry on any physical activity without discomfort.

THERAPEUTIC CLASSIFICATION

- Class A Patients with a cardiac disorder whose ordinary physical activity needs no restriction.
- Class B Patients with a cardiac disorder whose ordinary physical activity needs no restriction but who should be advised against unusually severe or competitive efforts.
- Class C Patients with a cardiac disorder whose ordinary physical activity should be moderately restricted and whose more strenuous habitual efforts should be discontinued.
- Class D Patients with a cardiac disorder whose ordinary physical activity should be markedly restricted.
- Class E Patients with a cardiac disorder who should be at complete rest or confined to bed.

POTENTIAL HEART DISEASE

Patients without heart disease whom it is advisable to follow because of the presence or history of an etiological factor which might cause heart disease should be diagnosed as Potential Heart Disease. In such cases the etiological factor should be stated.

* The former classes I, II, IIb, and III included only patients with organic heart disease.

POSSIBLE HEART DISEASE

Patients with symptoms or signs referable to the heart but in whom a diagnosis of cardiac disease is uncertain should be classified as Possible Heart Disease.

RELATIONS OF CARDIAC MEASUREMENTS TO BODY SIZE

Ungerleider and his associates found the cardiac size to be related to body build in such a way as to make certain measurements be of some value in many cases.

The following data may prove to be of value.

The measurements of (1) *transverse diameter*, (2) *area of the frontal cardiac silhouette* (usually inaccurate because of difficulty in estimating the inferior and superior) (3) *transverse diameter of the silhouette of the frontal aortic arch* are correlated with height and weight of the patient. When any of these measurements exceed 10 per cent of the expected standard value it is considered to be abnormal.

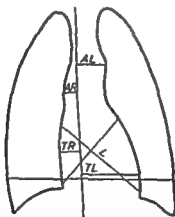


FIG. 207. Illustration of the various measurements that may be made when estimating cardiac size. (Courtesy of Dr. Harry E. Ungerleider and the Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States.) Transverse diameter = $TR + TL$ (sum of maximal projections to right and left borders from midline); Long diameter = L (extension from junction of cardiac silhouette and vascular pedicle on right to apex on left); Broad diameter = B (greatest diameter of cardiac shadow perpendicular to long diameter. This is sometimes drawn as the sum of two perpendiculars from the long diameter to the right and to the left heart borders. For calculation of the cardiac area in the Kymogram the broad diameter should be drawn in a single line as indicated. When the heart is transversely placed it may be necessary to extend the lower right heart border in its natural curve to delineate the margin of the broad diameter); Aortic arch diameter = $AR + AL$ (sum of maximal extension to right and to left borders of vascular pedicle of midline).

TABLE 19
DIAMETERS OF HEART VILLOUSSES FOR VARIOUS
HEIGHTS AND WEIGHTS

T.D. of heart mm	Height															T.D. of heart mm
	3'0"	1"	2"	3"	4"	5"	6"	7"	8"	9"	10"	11"	12"	1"	2"	
100	43	85	80	87	89	90	92									100
101	45	86	88	89	91	92	93	95								101
102	47	88	90	91	92	94	95	97								102
103	48	90	92	93	94	96	97	99	100							103
104	50	92	93	95	96	98	99	101	102							104
105	52	93	95	96	98	99	101	103	104	106						105
106	54	95	97	98	100	101	103	104	105	108						106
107	55	97	99	100	102	103	105	106	108	110	111					107
108	57	99	100	102	104	105	107	108	110	112	113					108
109	59	101	102	104	106	107	109	110	112	114	115	117				109
110	101	102	104	106	108	109	111	113	114	116	118	119	121			110
111	103	104	106	108	109	111	113	115	116	118	120	121	123	125		111
112	105	106	108	110	111	113	115	117	118	120	122	124	125	127	129	112
113	107	108	110	112	113	115	117	119	121	123	124	126	128	129	131	113
114	109	110	112	114	115	117	119	121	123	125	126	128	130	132	133	114
115	110	112	114	116	117	119	121	123	125	127	129	130	132	134	136	115
116	112	114	116	118	120	121	123	125	127	129	131	133	134	136	138	116
117	114	116	118	120	122	124	125	127	129	131	133	135	137	139	141	117
118	116	118	120	122	124	126	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	118
119	118	120	122	124	126	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	119
120	120	122	124	126	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	120
121	122	124	126	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	121
122	124	126	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	122
123	126	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	123
124	128	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	156	124
125	130	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	156	158	125
126	132	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	156	158	160	126
127	134	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	156	158	160	162	127
128	136	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	156	158	160	162	164	128
129	138	140	142	144	146	148	150	152	154	156	158	160	162	164	166	129

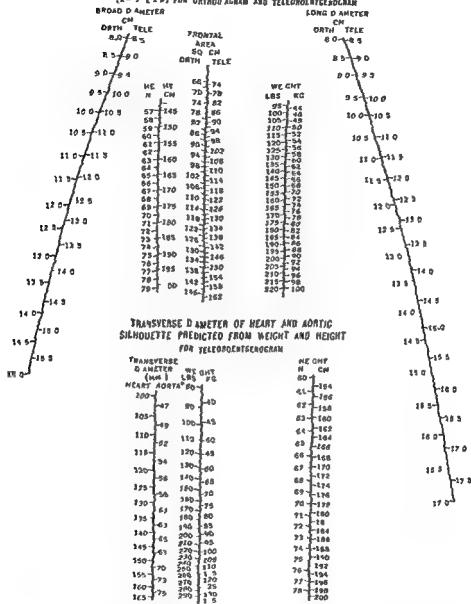
TABLE FOR DETERMINING THE PER CENT
DEVIATION FROM AVERAGE

T.D. of heart mm	Minus						4v	Plus					
	25	20	15	10	5	5		10	15	20	25		
100	75	80	85	90	95	100	100	105	110	115	120	125	
101	76	81	86	91	96	101	106	111	116	121	126		
102	77	82	87	92	97	102	107	112	117	122	127		
103	77	82	88	93	98	103	108	113	118	123	128		
104	78	83	88	93	98	104	109	114	119	124	129		
105	79	84	89	94	99	105	110	115	120	125	130		
106	80	85	90	95	100	106	111	116	121	126	131		
107	80	85	90	95	101	106	111	117	122	127	133		
108	81	86	91	96	102	107	112	118	123	128	134		
109	81	86	92	97	103	108	113	119	124	129	135		
110	82	87	93	98	104	109	114	120	125	131	136		
111	83	88	94	99	105	110	116	121	127	132	138		
112	83	89	94	100	106	111	117	122	128	133	139		
113	84	90	95	101	106	112	118	123	129	135	140		
114	85	90	96	102	107	113	119	124	130	136	141		
115	86	91	97	103	108	114	120	125	131	137	143		
116	86	92	98	104	109	115	121	127	132	138	144		
117	87	93	99	104	110	116	122	128	133	139	145		
118	88	94	99	105	111	117	123	129	135	140	146		
119	89	94	100	106	112	118	124	130	136	142	148		
120	89	95	101	107	113	119	125	131	137	143	149		
121	90	96	102	108	114	120	126	132	138	144	150		
122	91	97	103	109	115	121	127	133	139	145	151		
123	92	98	104	110	116	122	128	134	140	146	152		
124	92	98	105	111	117	123	129	135	141	147	153		
125	93	99	105	112	118	124	130	136	142	148	154		
126	94	100	106	113	119	125	131	137	143	149	155		
127	94	100	107	113	119	125	131	137	143	149	155		
128	95	101	107	113	120	126	132	138	144	150	156		
129	95	101	107	113	120	126	132	138	144	150	156		
130	96	102	108	114	120	126	132	138	144	150	156		
131	97	102	109	115	121	127	133	139	145	151	157		
132	97	103	110	116	122	128	134	140	146	152	158		
133	98	104	111	117	123	129	135	141	147	153	159		
134	99	105	112	118	124	130	136	142	148	154	160		
135	100	106	113	119	125	131	137	143	149	155	161		

[illegible]

PREDICTED AREA FROM WEIGHT AND HEIGHT AND ACTUAL AREA FROM LONG AND BROAD DIAMETERS

(A = 5 L x B) FOR ORTHOGRAM AND TELEPOICNOGRAM



*FOR AORTIC DIAMETER ADD .14 IN FOR EACH 2 YRS OVER AGE 2 AND SUBTRACT .14 IN FOR EACH 2 YRS UNDER 3

FIG 208 -- Nomogram for predicting the cardiac area and body weight and height. The total area for the first (for the first) area is the area of the heart

TABLE 20—MECELLANEOUS NORMAL CARDIAC MEASUREMENTS

B Weight of Average Normal Heart

1 At birth	20 grams
2 6 months	24 gram
3 1 year	30 grams
4 2 years	45 grams
5 4 years	70 grams
6 9 years	100 grams
7 15 years	200 grams
8 Adult Male	310 grams
Adult Female	250 grams

C Relationship of Heart Weight to Body Weight

- I The heart forms 0.4-0.45 per cent of total body weight in male of normal build
- 2 The heart forms 0.33 per cent of total body weight in female of normal build

D Heart Volume

1 At birth	22 cc
2 15 years	155 cc
3 20 years	230 cc
4 50 years	280 cc

E Thickness of Wall of Average

I RA	2 mm
II LA	3 mm
III RV	2-4 mm
IV LV	10-14 mm

F Capacity of Average

I RA	57 cc
II LA	120 cc
III RV	80 cc
IV LV	80 cc

G Circumference of Valves of Normal Heart

I Mitral	10 cm
II Aortic	7 cm
III Tricuspid	12 cm
IV Pulmonary	8 cm

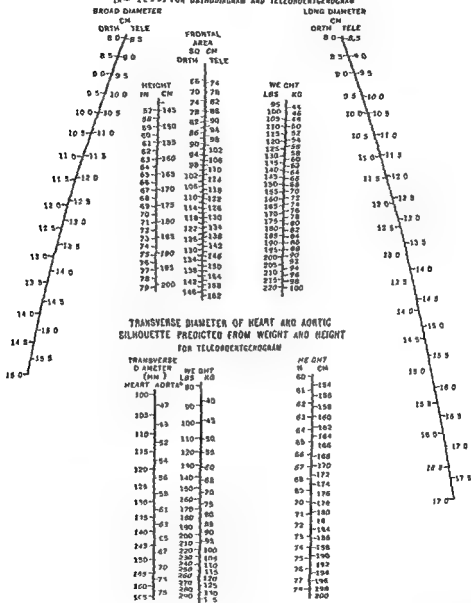
DIETS EMPLOYED IN CARDIAC DISEASE

It can be seen that the diets are not

at New Orleans. It is to be remembered that there is relatively little sodium in animal and plant tissue. Therefore under ordinary circumstances food cooked without any added salt is low in sodium. Salty foods such as smoked and salted meats, however, are not

Substitutes for
not palatable

PREDICTED AREA FROM WEIGHT AND HEIGHT, AND ACTUAL AREA FROM LONG AND BROAD DIAMETERS
 $[A = \pi \times L \times B]$ FOR ORTHODIAGRAM AND TELORVENTGROGRAM



NOTE: AORTIC DIAMETER 80-100 FOR 24-25 YRS OVER
 AGE 45 AND SUBTRACT 10% FOR EACH 5 YRS UNDER 45

1 1 1

1st and height
 at which
 (1st height)
 ventro-
 diameter of

RICE DIET

Approx 2400 Calories
30 gm protein
10 to 100 mg sodium
750 cc Fluids
Amount

Food	
<i>Breakfast.</i>	
Steamed Rice (cooked without salt)	1½ cup steamed (3 oz raw)
Fruit Juice	½ cup (4 oz)
3 Choices of Fruit List R	See List
Sugar (White)	4 level teaspoons
Honey	4 level teaspoons
<i>Mid Morning</i>	
Fruit Juice	½ cup (4 oz)
<i>Lunch</i>	
Steamed Rice (cooked without salt)	1½ cup steamed (3 oz raw)
3 Choices of Fruit List R	See List
Fruit Juice	½ cup (4 oz)
Sugar (White)	4 level teaspoons
Honey	4 level teaspoons
<i>Mid Afternoon</i>	
Fruit Juice	½ cup (4 oz)
<i>Dinner</i>	
Steamed Rice (cooked without salt)	1½ cup steamed (3 oz raw)
Fruit Juice	½ cup (4 oz)
3 Choices of Fruit List R	See List
Sugar (White)	4 level teaspoons
Honey	4 level teaspoons
<i>Bedtime</i>	
Fruit Juice	½ cup (4 oz)

RICE DIET

General Instructions
1. All

2. Use the brown rice or wild rice may be used. It may be boiled or steamed in plain water or fruit juice without salt, milk or fat. The palatability of the rice depends to some extent upon the way in which it is prepared. ordinary rice - about the hot water. This method wet rice.

KARRELL DIET

The Karrell Diet is used in acute nephritis or acute cardiac failure. Caloric and nutritional requirements are ignored temporarily. The diet consists entirely of milk or fruit juice if patient cannot tolerate milk.

8 00 A M	200 cc milk or fruit juice
12 00 NOON	200 cc milk or fruit juice
5 00 P M	200 cc milk or fruit juice
8 00 P M	200 cc milk or fruit juice

Total	800 cc milk or fruit juice
40 gm CHO	
26 gm Prot	
32 gm Fat	
550 Calories	
1.6 gm NaCl	

This diet should not be given any longer than five to seven days. If the patient's condition is still severe, additions should be made to the diet, and a modification of the Karrell Diet should be used.

KARRELL DIET WITH MODIFICATIONS

(Carbohydrate 198, Protein 45, Fat 32, Calories 1260, Salt 3.6 gm)

Cooked or canned fruit
Soft cooked eggs
Custards
Jello

SAMPLE MENU

8 00 A M	4 00 P M
200 cc milk	200 cc milk
Cereal with sugar	Toast
	Cereal with sugar
12 00 NOON	8 00 P M
200 cc milk	200 cc milk
Toast and jelly	Stewed fruit with sugar

SALT RESTRICTED DIETS

In cases of cardiac and renal disorders when edema is present or threatened salt must be restricted or eliminated entirely from the diet. Fluid limitations may also be necessary, however, recent studies have shown that forcing fluids in the presence of edema may be a beneficial procedure.

Cardiac Diets

- 1
- 2
- 3

Nephritic Diets

- 1 Karrell—acute nephritis
- 2 Modified Karrell—acute nephritis

CLINICAL HISTORY OF LOUISIANA CLINIC

RESTRICTED SODIUM DIET I

Protein—70 gms Sodium—3 gms

Foods Daily	You May Eat	Do Not Eat
Meats (1 or 2 servings)	Fresh beef, veal, mutton lamb, liver, tongue kidney tripe, wild game chicken, turkey fresh water fish	Smoked cured canned or pickled meat or fish, sausage ham bacon salt pork dried beef, shell fish, salt water fish
Cheese	Creole cream cheese or cottage cheese may be used instead of meat Once a day	American, Swiss or Philadelphia cream cheese
Egg (one)	1 or more a day	Fried eggs
Fruit (citrus fruit)	Any juice or fruit	Dried figs peaches apricots, and raisins
Vegetable (1 green and 1 ran)	Fresh or frozen vegetables	Any prepared with added salt frozen peas or lima beans sauerkraut pickles, canned vegetables celery beets
Potato (as desired)	Potato macaroni rice, grits spaghetti (all prepared without salt)	Potato chips fried potatoes
Cereal and bread (3 servings)	Salt free cooked cereals puffed rice puffed wheat shredded wheat salt free bread	All other dry cereals salted crackers cornbread biscuits anything with baking powder or baking soda all bakery goods
Fat (as desired)	Washed butter or margarine oil all unsalted fats	Bacon fat salted dressing salt pork fried foods
Dessert (as desired)	Gelatin desserts fruits and dings custard	Desserts made with salt baking soda or baking powder
Sweet (as desired)	Sugar honey syrup hard candy jelly jam	Jams and jellies prepared with sodium benzoate candy bars
Soup (as desired)	Homemade only	Canned soup bouillon
Beverage (1 cup milk)	Coffee tea 1 cup milk home- made buttermilk lemonade	Dairy buttermilk
Miscellaneous	Spices vinegar unsalted nuts herbs unsalted salad dressing	Salt olives mustard catsup chili meat sauce peanut butter, salted nuts

SAMPLE MENU

Breakfast	Dinner	Supper
Orange juice Oatmeal Egg Salt Free Bread and Butter Coffee	Meat Stew Rice or Potato Greens Stewed Prunes S F Bread and Butter Milk	Cream Cheese Baked Potato Sliced Tomatoes Fruit S F Bread and Butter

- 3 Combinations of rice, fruits and sugar may be varied according to taste. Some patients who object to the sweet taste find the use of lemon juice helpful.
- 4 A standard measuring cup (8 oz.) is used.
- 5 Usually water is omitted and fluid is limited from 700 to 1,000 cc. of fruit juice per day.
- 6 The caloric intake varies according to whether weight gain or weight loss is desired in the individual patient.

RICED PUDDING

$\frac{1}{2}$ cup cooked, washed rice
One portion of fruit from Fruit List R

Combine the rice and fruit.
Moisten with part of allowed fruit juice. Season to taste with sugar or honey. Bake in ramekins.

FROZEN FRUIT CUP

1 Tablespoon cooked, washed rice
One portion of fruit from Fruit List R

Combine rice, fruit and juice. Season to taste with sugar. Freeze.

$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of allowed fruit juice

RICED BEVERAGE (1)

6 Tablespoons cooked, washed rice
One portion of fruit from Fruit List R

Combine rice, fruit and juice. Season to taste with sugar or honey. Blend until smooth.

$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of allowed fruit juice

RICED BEVERAGE (2)

11 Tablespoons cooked, washed rice
 $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of allowed fruit juice

Combine rice and fruit juice. Season to taste with sugar or honey. Blend until smooth.

FRUIT LIST R

One average portion of the following fruits may be used:

Apple, fresh or stewed, sweetened	Lemon
Apricots, fresh or stewed, sweetened	Lime
Banana (once a day)	Orange, fresh
Blackberries, fresh or stewed, sweetened	Peach, fresh or stewed, sweetened
Blueberries, fresh or stewed, sweetened	Pear, fresh or stewed, sweetened
Cantaloupe (one-eighth per day)	Pineapple, fresh or stewed, sweetened
Cherries, fresh or stewed, sweetened	Plum, fresh or stewed, sweetened
Cranberry jelly (homemade)	Raspberries, fresh or stewed, sweetened
Cranberry sauce	Rhubarb, stewed, sweetened
Figs, fresh or stewed, sweetened	Strawberries
Grapefruit, fresh	Tangerine
Grapes	Watermelon
Honey Dew Melon (one-eighth per day)	

Check with the typical diet as to amount of fruit juice allowed in your diet in a day. You may choose from the following fruit juices:

Apple juice	Lemon juice
Cranberry juice (homemade)	Orange juice
Grapefruit juice	Lime juice
Grape juice	Pineapple juice

CHARITY HOSPITAL OF LOUISIANA CLINIC

RESTRICTED SODIUM DIET I

Protein—70 gms Sodium—3.5 gms

<i> Foods Daily</i>	<i>You May Eat</i>	<i>Do Not Eat</i>
Meats (1 or 2 servings)	Fresh beef, veal, mutton, lamb, liver, tongue, kidneys, tripe, wild game, chicken, turkey, fresh water fish	Smoked, cured, canned or pickled meat or fish, sausage, ham, bacon, salt pork, dried beef, shell fish, salt water fish
Cheese	Creole cream cheese or cottage cheese may be used instead of meat Once a day	American, Swiss or Philadelphia cream cheese
Egg (one)	1 or more a day	Fried eggs
Fruit (citrus fruit)	Any juice or fruit	Dried figs, peaches, apricots, and raisins
Vegetable (1 green and 1 raw)	Fresh or frozen vegetables	Any prepared with added salt, frozen peas or lima beans, sauerkraut, pickles, canned vegetables, celery, beets
Potato (as desired)	Potato, macaroni, rice, grits, spaghetti (all prepared without salt)	Potato chips, fried potatoes
Cereal and bread (3 servings)	Salt free cooked cereals, puffed rice, puffed wheat, shredded wheat, salt free bread	All other dry cereals, salted crackers, cornbread, biscuits, anything with baking powder or baking soda, all bakery goods
Fat (as desired)	Washed butter or margarine, oil, all unsalted fats	Bacon fat, salted dressing, salt pork, fried foods
Desert (as desired)	Gelatin deserts, fruits, pud- dings, custard	Deserts made with salt, baking soda or baking powder
Sweets (as desired)	Sugar, honey, syrup, hard candy, jelly, jam	Jams and jellies prepared with sodium benzoate candy bars
Soup (as desired)	Homemade, only	Canned soup, bouillon
Beverage (1 cup milk)	Coffee, tea, 1 cup milk, home- made buttermilk, lemonade	Dairy buttermilk
Miscellaneous	Spices, vinegar, unsalted nuts, herbs, unsalted salad dressings	Salt, olives, mustard, catsup, chili meat sauce, peanut butter, salted nuts

SAMPLE MENU

<i>Breakfast</i>	<i>Dinner</i>	<i>Supper</i>
Orange juice	Meat Stew	Cream Cheese
Oatmeal	Rice or Potato	Baked Potato
Egg	Greens	Sliced Tomatoes
Salt Free Bread and Butter	Stewed Prunes	Fruit
Coffee	S F Bread and Butter	S F Bread and Butter
	Milk	

- 3 Combinations of rice fruits and sugar may be varied according to taste
- 4 " " " " " "
- 5 " " " " " "
- 6 " " " " " " ing to whether weight gain or weight loss is

RICE PUDDING

- $\frac{1}{2}$ cup cooked washed rice Combine the rice and fruit
One portion of fruit from Fruit List R

ICE CREAM & FRUIT CUP

- 1 Tablespoon cooked washed rice Combine rice fruit and juice
One portion of fruit from Fruit List R son to taste with sugar Freeze
 $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of allowed fruit juice

RICE BEVERAGE (1)

- 6 Tablespoons cooked washed rice
One portion of fruit from Fruit List R
 $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of allowed fruit juice

RICE BEVERAGE (2)

- 6 Tablespoons cooked washed rice
 $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of allowed fruit juice

FRUIT LIST R

One average portion of the following fruits may be used

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Apple fresh or stewed sweetened | Lemon |
| Apricots fresh or stewed sweetened | Lime |
| | Orange fresh |
| | Peach fresh or stewed sweetened |
| | Pear fresh or stewed sweetened |
| | Pineapple fresh or stewed sweetened |
| | Plum fresh or stewed sweetened |
| | Raspberries fresh or stewed sweetened |
| | Rhubarb stewed sweetened |
| | Strawberries |
| Grapefruit fresh | Tangerine |
| Grapes | Watermelon |
| Honey Dew Melon (one-eighth per day) | |

Check with the typical day as to amount of fruit juice allowed in your diet in a day. You may choose from the following fruit juices:

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------|
| Apple juice | Lemon juice |
| Cranberry juice (homemade) | Orange juice |
| Grapefruit juice | Lime juice |
| Grape juice | Pineapple juice |

LOW SALT NORMAL PROTEIN DIET

(Protein 75 gm., NaCl 17 gm.)

The low salt diet with adequate protein allowance is a diet frequently used in cases of cardiac diseases or chronic nephritis in the absence of albuminuria or edema.

Foods Allowed

Bread Without salt, if possible

Cereals As desired, but cooked without salt. Oatmeal or other whole grain cereals are preferred. No prepared cereals except puffed rice and puffed wheat.

Eggs One

Meats One average serving or two small servings of fresh lean meat such as beef, lamb, chicken or veal. Cream cheese or eggs may be used sometimes in place of one small serving of meat.

Potatoes One serving. Potatoes should be used in preference to macaroni, spaghetti, white rice or grits. Brown rice is just as good as potatoes.

Vegetables Two at least besides potatoes and dried beans. Do not cook with salt or salt meat. Try to have one vegetable raw every day.

Fruits Two at least. Have one raw fruit every day, an orange or grapefruit if possible.

Milk One pint (for a grown person)

Butter Without salt, if possible

Sweets fats and other foods may be added to the list above, but they must not have salt in them or taste salty.

SAMPLE MENU

<i>Breakfast</i>	<i>Dinner</i>	<i>Supper</i>
Orange	Veal chop	Cream cheese
Oatmeal	Rice	Baked potato
Eggs	Greens	Sliced tomato
Whole wheat toast	Snap beans	Tapioca pudding
Butter	Stewed prunes	Bread and butter
Coffee if desired	Bread and butter	Milk
	Milk	

Foods to Avoid

Salt in any form

Bicarbonate or baking soda

Fried or greasy foods

Cured, salt or smoked meats or fish or bacon

Cas forming fruits and vegetables

Rich pies and pastries

Condiments

Bottled and alcoholic beverages

Soups, sauces, gravies

LOW SALT SOFT DIET

(Carbohydrate 185, Protein 57, Fat 59, Calories 1499, NaCl 1.7 gm.)

The low salt-soft diet is an inadequate diet and should be used for a limited time only. It is low in protein, iron and vitamin B complex.

All food is prepared with salt. No salt is added to the diet.

Food Allowed

beef white meat of chicken and

Use potatoes in preference to grits, rice, macaroni, etc. May be boiled, buttered, creamed, mashed. Vegetables 2 servings daily—cooked and put through a sieve.

Use carrots, beets, green beans, spinach, asparagus, tomatoes, green peas, squash.

Fruits 2 servings daily. One must be orange or orange juice or grapefruit juice. All must be cooked except oranges and bananas. Dried fruits must be put through a sieve.

Milk Pasteurized 1 pint daily for adults, 1 quart for children.

Desserts Simple puddings, jello, custard, all prepared without salt.

Condiments None. May use lemon juice for flavor.

Beverages 1 cup tea or coffee daily. No bottled beverages.

SAMPLE MENU

Breakfast	Dinner	Supper
Orange	Cream cheese	Poached egg
Oatmeal	Mashed potatoes	Grits
1 soft cooked egg	Spinach puree	Beet puree
Toast and butter	Jello	Bread and butter
1 cup weak coffee	Bread and butter	Canned pears
90 cc. milk	1 glass milk	1 glass milk

Foods to Avoid

Salt in any form

Bicarbonate or baking soda

Fried or greasy foods

Cured salt or smoked meats

Gas forming vegetables and fruit

Bran

Rich pies and pastries

Condiments

Bottled and alcoholic beverages

Soups, sauces and gravies

LOW SALT HIGH PROTEIN DIET

(Protein 100 gm, NaCl 2.7 gm)

A low salt diet high in protein may be indicated

Foods Allowed

~6 slices

No prepared cereals, except puffed

MEAT 4-5 OZS. NOT MORE

Meat Fish Poultry 2 large servings daily No ham bacon, or salty fish

Cheese Cream cheese only, may be substituted for 1 serving of meat

Potatoes and Substitutes 1-2 times daily Use potatoes in preference to

gnits macaroni rice etc May be mashed boiled, creamed not fried

Vegetables 2-3 servings daily If possible to cook light vegetable soup or meat

Fru

Mi

Rn

served without

SAMPLE MENU

Breakfast

Orange
Oatmeal with sugar
and milk
2 scrambled eggs
1 cup weak coffee
Toast and butter
1 glass milk

Dinner

Facilitated chicken
and noodles
Green beans
Grapefruit salad
Custard
Milk
Bread and butter

Supper

Large serving beef
Mashed potatoes
Carrots
Mixed lettuce salad
with lemon juice
Apple
Bread and butter
1 glass milk

Foods to Avoid

Salt in any form
Bicarbonate or baking soda
Fried or greasy food

Bottled and club beverages
Sugar sweetened beverages

ACID ASH DIET

Excess Acid Ash over Alkaline Ash 37 cc

(Calkins, Britte 1931 Protein 100 Fat 110 Calories 2130)

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for

CHARITY HOSPITAL OF LOUISIANA CLINICS

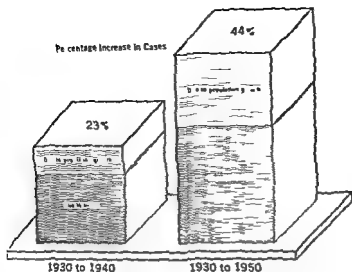
RESTRICTED SODIUM DIET 2

Protein 80 gms Sodium 15-2 gms

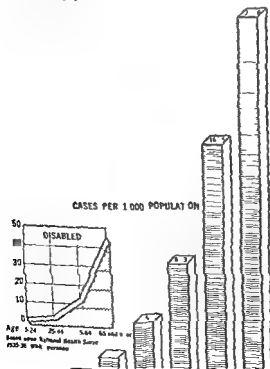
<i>Foods Daily</i>	<i>You May Eat</i>	<i>Do Not Eat</i>
Meats (1 or 2 servings)	Fish beef veal mutton lamb liver, tongue kidney tripe wild game chicken turkey fish and other fresh seafoods	Smoked cured canned or pickled meat or fish sausage ham bacon salt pork dried beef
Cheese	Creole cream cheese or cottage cheese may be used instead of meat Once a day	American, Swiss or Philadelphia cream cheese
Egg (one)	1 or more a day	Fried eggs
Fruit (citrus fruit)	Any juice or fruit	Dried figs peaches apricots and raisins
Vegetable (1 green and 1 row)	Fresh or frozen vegetables canned not more than 2 or 3 times a week	Any prepared with added salt frozen peas or lima beans sauerkraut pickles
Potato (as desired)	Potato macaroni rice grits spaghetti (all prepared without salt)	Potato chips fried potatoes
Cereal and Bread (3 servings)	Salt free cooked cereals puffed rice puffed wheat shredded wheat whole grain or enriched bread	All other dry cereals salted crackers cornbread biscuits anything with baking soda or baking powder
Fat (as desired)	Washed butter or margarine oil all unsalted fats	Bacon fat salted dressing salt pork fried foods
Dessert (as desired)	Gelatin desserts fruits puddings custard	Desserts made with salt baking soda or baking powder
Sweets (as desired)	Sugar honey syrup hard candy jelly jam	Jams and jellies prepared with sodium benzoate candy bars
Soup (as desired)	Homemade only	Canned soup bouillon
Beverage (1½ pt milk)	Coffee tea 1½ pt milk home made buttermilk lemonade	Butter buttermilk
Miscellaneous	Spices vinegar unsalted nuts herbs unsalted salad dressings	Salt olives mustard catsup chili meat sauce peanut butter salted nuts

SAMPLE MENU

<i>Breakfast</i>	<i>Dinner</i>	<i>Supper</i>
Orange juice	Meat Stew	Cream Cheese
Oatmeal	Rice or Potato	Baked Potato
Egg	Greens	Sliced Tomatoes
Bread and Butter	Stewed Prunes	Fruit
Coffee	Bread and Butter	Bread and Butter
Milk	Milk	Milk



9*—About 4 000 000 people in the United States are estimated to have heart disease. The incidence has been increasing because of (1) The aging of the population (2) Increase in the total population



To produce an acid pH of the urine the diet should yield at least 35 cc excess acid ash. When the desired pH is acquired, an excess of 17 cc acid ash is sufficient to maintain a low pH.

Fluids should be forced, and the salt content of the diet should be low as possible. No salt should be used either during cooking or at the table.

Foods Allowed

Bread Use freely—any kind except quick breads as biscuits, fruit breads.

Ce

Eg

M

Cheese Use only unsalted cottage cheese or cream cheese.

Potato or Potato Substitutes No potatoes allowed. Rice, noodles, macaroni, spaghetti may be used freely.

Butter or Margarine As desired—unsalted.

Desserts Allowed fruits, tapioca, cornstarch, bread, rice puddings, ice cream, sugar cookies, plum cakes. Avoid all rich pastries and any dessert made with baking soda.

Soups Avoid.

Beverages Tea, coffee, postum. No fruit juices, no bottled or carbonated beverages.

Condiments

Accessory Food

(no chocolate) may be used.

sugar candy

SAMPLE MENU

Breakfast

Prunes
Oatmeal with cream
and sugar
Scrambled egg
Whole wheat toast
and butter
Coffee or tea with
cream and sugar

Dinner

Roast lamb
Buttered rice
Small serving lettuce
with salt free
mayonnaise
Plum cake
Whole wheat bread
and butter
Milk—1 glass

Supper

Beef patty
Escalloped noodles
Corn
Plums
Whole wheat bread
and butter
Milk—1 glass

Foods to Avoid

1

luncheon meats, pickled or cured meats

2

allowed in above list

3 Potatoes

4

rich pies and pastries All fruit desserts

5

verages

6 All highly acidic fruits

Almonds

Beet greens

Dandelion greens

Figs

Molasses

Olives

Pumpkins

Raisins

Spinach

Dried fruits and vegetables

CHARITY HOSPITAL OF LOUISIANA CLINICS

OMNIVIT DIET (Low Sodium--931 6 mgm. daily)

1200 CALORIES C160-P60-F40

Breakfast

Fruit	1 orange, $\frac{1}{2}$ grapefruit or unsweetened orange or grapefruit juice
Bread	1 slice
Egg	1 boiled or poached--not fried
Milk (skimmed)	1 glass
Margarine or butter	1 level teaspoon
Tea or Coffee	1 cup if desired Use no sugar or cream

Dinner and Supper

Meat Fish Chicken	1 large piece of lean fresh meat Use lean beef, veal, lamb, liver, tongue, kidney, tripe, rabbit, squirrel, wild game Two eggs, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup cream cheese may be used in place of the meat
Vegetable Group I	As desired (see list below)
Vegetable Group II	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup (see list below)
Fruit	1 serving (see list below)
Milk (skimmed)	1 glass
Bread	1 slice or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of a cooked starchy food
Margarine or butter	1 level teaspoon

VEGETABLE LIST

Group I		Group II
Asparagus	Artichokes	Carrots
Broccoli	Mushrooms	Beets
Cabbage	Onions	Onions
Cauliflower	Radishes	Pumpkin
Celery	Snap Beans	Squash Yellow
Cucumbers	Spinach	Turnips
Eggplant	Squash White	Peas
Green Peppers	Tomatoes	
Greens (all)		
Lettuce		

FRUIT LIST

1 Apple	1 Pear
3 Apricots	4 Plums
1 Banana	2 Prunes
$\frac{1}{2}$ Cantaloupe	1 cup Berries
3 Fresh Figs	1 Tangerine Satsuma or Mandarin
$\frac{1}{2}$ Grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ Slice Watermelon
1 Orange	
1 Peach	

Rules

- 1 Eat three meals a day using only the foods listed on the diet (Eat No SWEETS)
- 2 The milk you use may be fresh milk, buttermilk, canned evaporated milk, mixed with an equal part of water or powdered skimmed milk (1 cup powdered milk to 1 quart of water)

- 3 Do NOT FRY ANYTHING Boil, roast or broil meat Make no roux gravies
- 4 Do NOT ADD SUGAR OR FLOUR TO ANYTHING Saccharin, Crystalline, or Sucryl may be used for sweetening
- 5 VEGETABLES—cook in plain unsalted water Never use cooking soda Use NO GREASE OR FAT SALT MEAT to season the vegetables Cook vegetables no longer than 10-25 minutes in a small amount of water Use the vegetable water too
- 6 Drink eight glasses of fluid each day Do not drink bottled drinks
- 7 These things you may have whenever you like—coffee, tea, lemonade, or broth without fat
- 8 You may use pepper, all spices, garlic, and vinegar for seasonings Use NO SALT
- 9 Starchy foods which may be used instead of bread are Corn rice potatoes grits, spaghetti, dried beans or peas cooked cereals and puffed rice, puffed wheat and shredded wheat

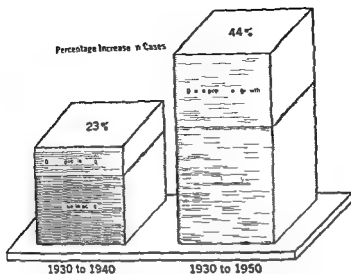
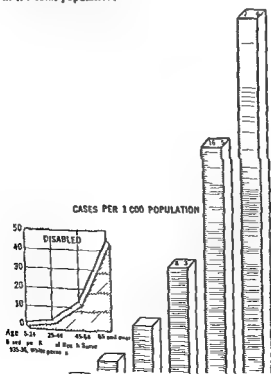


FIG. 209 *—About 4 000 000 people in the United States are estimated to have heart disease. The incidence has been increasing because of (1) The aging of the population, (2) the increase in the total population.



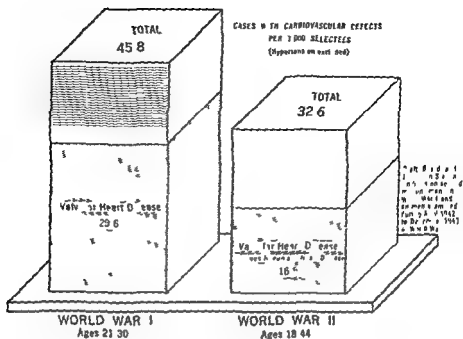


FIG. 211 —At the younger ages a sharp reduction in the prevalence rate particularly for the rheumatic heart disease is indicated by selective service statistics for World Wars I and II.

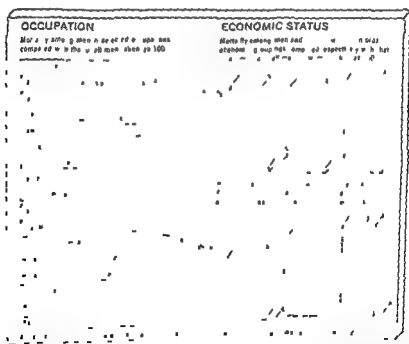


FIG. 212 —Distinct occupational differences are found in heart disease among men reflecting physical and mental stresses of occupations. This effect is often obscured by the shifting of the influence among men.

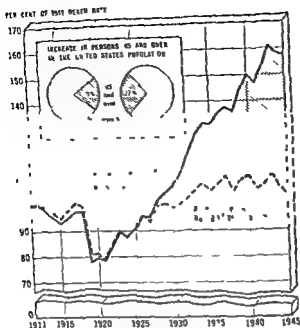


FIG. 213 Much of the increase in deaths ascribed to heart disease is accounted for by the advanced aging of the population

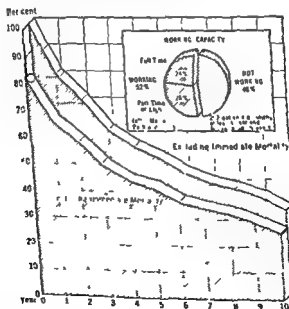


FIG. 214—The greater majority of patients survive the initial attack and most live for many years. A large proportion of them are even able to resume normal or near normal activities.

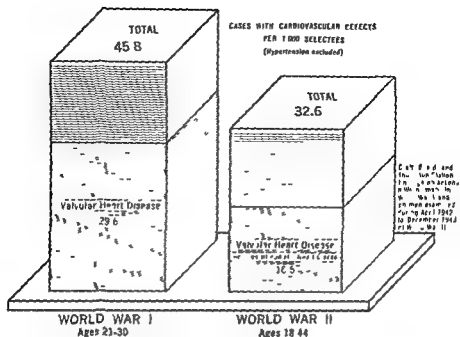
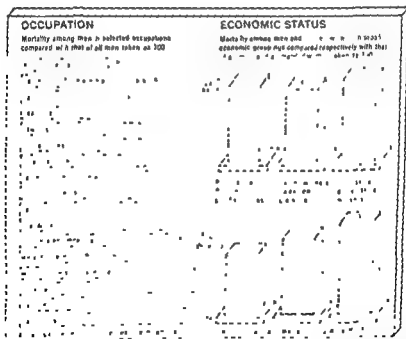


FIG 211 —At the younger ages a sharp reduction in the prevalence rate, particularly for the rheumatic heart disease, is indicated by Selective Service statistics for World War I and II



heart disease among men as effect is often obscured as well as by the shifting of patients with heart disease to such occupations. Because of these factors, the influence of economic status tends to be seen more clearly among married women than among men

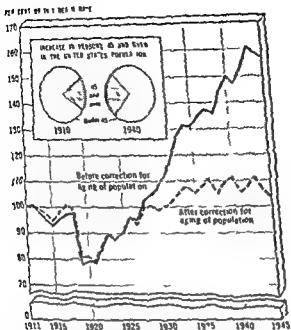


FIG 213 Much of the increase in deaths ascribed to heart disease is accounted for by the advanced aging of the population

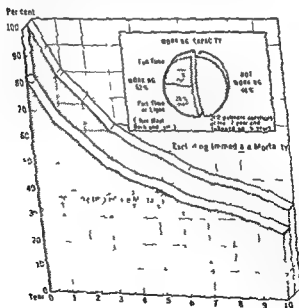


FIG 214 The greater majority of patients survive the initial attack and live for many years. A large proportion of them are even able to resume normal or near normal activities.



INDEX

- Aspovex**, examination of 84
- Atrial diet** 319
- ACTH** in rheumatic heart disease 218
- Aging process** 195
- Alteration of the heart** — see under **Pulsus alternans and Cardiac mechanism**
- Atrial area and right ventricular congestive heart failure** 65
- Anatomic diagnosis of heart disease** 50 303
- Anatomy cardiac** 17
- clinical aspects 23
- valves 25
- in diagnosis of heart disease 50
- thoracic 17
- valves 25
- Anemia and murmur** 135
- as cause of heart disease 184
- severe as sign of heart disease 41
- pain in 80
- Anemic heart disease** 184 — see also under **Heart disease**
- Aneurysm** 86 138 211 213
- aortic pain in 80
- myotic 168
- syphilitic and blocking of carotid arteries 84
- thoracic treatment of 214
- Angina hypercyanotica** 201
- Angina pectoris** 201
- age incidence 197
- and anemic heart disease 184
- and anginal failure 52
- and Heberden pain 46
- clinical picture 202
- complications 203
- course 202
- diagnosis 202
- in hypothyroid heart disease 222
- incidence 201
- mechanism 202
- physical examination 202
- prognosis 202
- treatment 203 260
- Anginal failure** 52
- in thyroid heart disease 220
- Angiocardiography, in atricular septal defect** 244
- in correlation of the aorta, 257
- in Lutenmenger's complex 253
- Angiocardiography, in patent ductus arteriosus** 247
- in pulmonary stenosis 248
- with atrial septal defect 249
- in tetralogy of Fallot, 252
- in transposition of the great vessels 244
- in tricuspid atresia 243
- in ventricular septal defect, 245
- method 40
- Anomalies, cardiac, 222** — see also **Congenital cardiac anomalies**
- Anoxia and cardiac edema** 72
- Anticoagulants and coronary occlusion** 264
- Arterio-neurotic and cardiac disease** 79
- 181
- Aortic aneurysm and cough** 81
- murmur in 139
- pain in 80
- Aortic insufficiency** 140
- and mitral stenosis 129
- and syphilitic heart disease 210
- functional 141
- murmur of 140
- Aortic regurgitation** 140 141
- etiology of 143
- murmur of 140
- Aortic stenosis** 139 154
- etiology of 131
- murmur of 138
- Aper heart location of** 88
- Appendix** 303
- Arrhythmia, sinus, 271** — see also under **Cardiac mechanisms**
- Arterio-sclerosis, venule generalized** 46
- Arteriosclerotic heart disease, 195** — see also under **Heart disease**
- Atrial body in rheumatic heart disease** 215
- Atrial and right ventricular congestive heart failure** 65
- Atrial area and right ventricular congestive heart failure** 65
- Heart sounds in** 159
- Atrial flutter, 288** — see also under **Cardiac mechanisms**

- Auricular flutter, and auricular fibrillation** 295
 and paroxysmal tachycardia 297
 as sign of heart disease, 41
Auricular heart sound See **Heart Sounds**, fourth

Auscultation 90

- and auricular fibrillation 292 293
 and cardiac mechanisms 267
 and heart sounds See **Heart sounds**
 and premature contractions 278
 in practice 92
 of mitral area 92
 of other areas, 94
Auscultatory gap 43 44
 method of measuring blood pressure 42

Austin Flint murmur 123 147

V block 159 See also under **Cardiac mechanisms** heart block

B

BACKWARD failure concept of congestive heart failure 53

Bacterial endocarditis See under **Endocarditis**

Beriberi heart disease, 187 See also under **Heart disease**

Bigeminy and premature contractions 281

and pulsus alternans 43

Biot respiration 62

Blalock 249

Blood pressure and auricular fibrillation 293

and patent ductus arteriosus 241

and pulsus alternans 45

arterial and premature contractions 277

measurement of 42

errors in 44

auscultatory gap 43 44

auscultatory method 42

diastolic 42

intracapillary 66

Korotkoff sounds in 42

palpatory method 42

systolic 42

Blood volume increased in right ventricular congestive heart failure 63

Bradycardia sinus, 272

Broadbent's sign 88 182

Brut de canon 159

and heart block 300

Bundle branch block and splitting of heart sounds 116

Bundle branch block, heart sounds in 115 116 158
 in ventricular septal defect 245
 in rheumatic heart disease 216
 third heart sound in 116

C

CAPILLARY permeability and cardiac edema 72

and fluid balance 68

and nephritic edema 75

and nephrotic edema 77

Capillary pulsations methods of observing 82

Cardiac anatomy 17

clinical aspects of 23

valves 25

Cardiac asthma and dyspnea 62

Cardiac catheterization in auricular septal defect 244

in congenital cardiac anomalies 223

in Eisenmenger's complex 253

in patent ductus arteriosus 247

in pulmonary stenosis 248

infundibular 243

in tetralogy of Fallot 252

in transposition of the great vessels 254

in tricuspid atresia 253

in ventricular septal defect 245

Cardiac circulation 20

Cardiac cycle phases of 91

physiologic phases of 101

Cardiac disease See **Heart disease**

Cardiac edema See under **Edema**

Cardiac enlargement detection of 32

Cardiac examination See **Heart examination**

Cardiac index 33 36

Cardiac irregularities 267 See also

Cardiac mechanisms

Cardiac measurement Langerleider table 34 310

Cardiac mechanisms 267

alternation of the heart 296 See

also under **Pulsus alternans**

arrhythmia sinus 273

auricular fibrillation 290

and auricular flutter 295

and paroxysmal tachycardia 291

and premature contractions 291

cause 291

diagnosis 291

incidence 291

significance 296

symptoms 296

treatment 296

auricular flutter 288

clinical characteristics 283

- Cardiac mechanisms, auricular flutter,**
 diagnosis, 289
 differential, 290
 symptoms, 290
 treatment, 290
bradycardia, sinus, 272
ectopic beats, 274
heart block, 298
 cause, 298
 complete atrioventricular, 158
 diagnosis, 298
 complete, 299
 delayed, 298
 partial, 298
 heart sounds in 158
 prognosis 301
 significance 301
 treatment 301
normal sinus rhythm, 218
 diagnosis 268
paroxysmal tachycardia, 281
 and auricular fibrillation, 293
 and auricular flutter, 287
 auricular 287
 bedside diagnosis, 285
 cause 285
 classification, 285
 mechanism, 284
 significance 287
 symptoms 286
 treatment, 287
premature contractions 271
 and auricular fibrillation, 293
 and bigeminy 281
 auricular 280
 bedside manifestation 275
 cause 283
 diagnosis of 277
 heart sounds in 160
 interpolated 283
 mechanism 274
 multiple and auricular flutter 240
 significance 283
 treatment, 284
 types 275
 ventricular, 282
pulsus alternans 41 64, 296
 and bigeminy, 41
 and digitalis intoxication 41
 and left ventricular congestive heart failure, 64
 detection of 41
 diagnosis 297
 heart sounds in, 160
 mechanism 296
 significance, 297
 treatment, 297
sinus arrhythmia, 273
 diagnosis, 274
- Cardiac mechanisms, sinus arrhythmia**
 significance, 274
 treatment, 274
sinus bradycardia, 272
 diagnosis, 272
 etiology, 272
 significance, 273
 treatment, 273
sinus tachycardia 269
 diagnosis 269
 etiology, 271
 significance, 271
 treatment, 272
- Cardiac neurosis,** 189
Cardiac output, high, 53
 low, 54
 role in congestive heart failure, 51
Cardiac size, percussion and, 90
 roentgenography and, 90
- tricular congestive failure,** 60
Cheyne-Stokes breathing and left ven-
tricular congestive heart failure, 111
Circulation, cardiac, 20
Classification of congenital cardiac anom-
alies, 239
 of gallop rhythm 117, 121
 of heart disease, 30, 303
 of hypertension
- Compensatory pause, in premature con-**
tractions, 276, 277
Concretions, in pericarditis, 176
Conduction tissue, 28
Congenital cardiac anomalies, 222
 and endocarditis, 171
 and infections, 166
 anomalous shunts 223
 left to right intracardiac, 231
 right to left intracardiac, 237
 aortic stenosis 138
 auricular septal defect, 241
 cardiac catheterization in, 225
 cause, 223
 classification, 239, 240
 clinical manifestations 223
 correction of the aorta, 255
 combined, 154, 249
 cyanosis and, 87
 Eisenmenger's complex, 252
 electrocardiogram in, 225

- Congenital cardiac anomalies, incidence,** 223, 239, 240
 mitral stenosis, 122
 murmurs in, 221
 patent ductus arteriosus, 154, 245
 pulmonary stenosis, 145, 247
 infundibular, 249
 with atrial septal defect, 249
 with intact atrial and ventricular septa, 247
 with ventricular septal defect, 249
 tetralogy of Fallot, 249
 transposition of the great vessels, 254
 tricuspid atresia, 253
 ventricular septal defect, 244
- Congestive heart failure, 52**
 and rheumatic heart disease, 217
 and transudates, 65
 diagnosis of, 58
 left ventricular, 58
 right and left ventricular, 66
 right ventricular, 64
 edema in, 72
 fluid balance and, 66
 lymphatics in, 68
 in hyperthyroid heart disease, 220
 left ventricular, 58
 and pulsus alternans, 297
 cough in, 81
 cyanosis and, 85
 diagnosis, 58
 hemoptysis in, 81
 mechanism of, 56
mechanism, 52, 57
 classical concepts, 52
 backward failure, 53
 forward failure, 53
 incompatibilities of, 53
 desoxycorticosterone acetate, 54
 edema and, 54, 56, 57, 68
 fluid balance in, 66
 high output failure, 53
 kidneys in, 57, 58
 left ventricular, 56
 low output failure, 51
 right ventricular, 55
 protodiastolic gallop rhythm and, 118
 right and left ventricular, 66
 right ventricular, 55, 64
 and venous hypertension, 47
 diagnosis of, 64
 jaundice in, 87
 mechanism of, 55
 treatment, 257
 types of, 52
 water exchange in, 73
- Coronary artery disease, incidence, 197**
 of occlusion, 197
 Coronary circulation, impaired, in aging process, 199
Coronary occlusion and anginal failure, 52
 and Heberden pain, 47
 treatment, 262
 Corrigan pulse, 211
 Cough and heart disease, 81
 Crescendo murmurs, 95
 Crunch, apical, 157
 Cyanosis, cause of, 85
 in congenital cardiac anomalies, 224
 severe, pain in, 80
- D
- Da Costa, 191**
 Decrescendo murmur, 93
 Definition of auricular fibrillation, 290
 flutter, 288
 of heart block, 297
 of paroxysmal tachycardia, 284
 of pulsus alternans, 296
 of sinus arrhythmia, 274
 bradycardia, 272
 tachycardia, 269
 De Musset sign, 211
 Diagnosis of auricular fibrillation, 291
 flutter, 289
 of beriberi heart disease, 189
 of cardiac irregularities, 267
 of heart block, 298
 of heart disease, 30-41 *See also Heart disease*
 absence of, 30
 anatomic, 50, 303
 criteria for, 30
 etiologic, 50, 303
 functional, 50, 306
 physiologic, 50, 305
 possible, 31, 307
 potential, 31, 306
 therapeutic, 51, 306
 of hyperthyroid heart disease, 220
 of left ventricular congestive heart failure, 54 *See also under Congestive heart failure*
 of normal sinus rhythm, 268
 of paroxysmal tachycardia, 285
 of pericarditis, 173
 of premature contractions, 275
 of pulsus alternans, 297
 of right and left ventricular congestive heart failure, 66 *See also under Congestive heart failure*
 of right ventricular congestive heart failure, 64 *See also under Congestive heart failure*
 of sinus arrhythmia, 274

- Diagnosis of sinus bradycardia**, 272
 of syphilitic heart disease 211
Diastole and heart sounds 91
 atrial, 92
 tuning of 91
 ventricular, 92
 phases of 102
Diastolic hypertension 49
Diastolic murmur 46
Diet cardiac 311
 acid a. h. 319
 harrell 312
 obesity 321
 rice 313
 salt restricted 312 315
Digitalis, 264
 and congestive heart failure 259
 and paroxysmal tachycardia 288
 in beriberi heart disease 159
 intoxication and *fulvus alternans* 41
Disease Graves 46
Disease Heart *See* **Heart disease**
Diuretics and congestive heart failure, 259
Dropped beats 277
Duroziez sign 211
Dyspepsia and cardiac disease 81
Dyspnea, 59 80
 acute cardiac in congestive heart failure 80
 and cardiac disease 80
 in left ventricular congestive heart failure 80
 in neurocirculatory asthenia 192
 mechanisms in 81
 paroxysmal nocturnal in left ventricular congestive heart failure 60 62

F
Ectopic beats 274 *See also* under **Cardiac mechanisms, premature beats**
Edema and hormones 71
 and tissue pressure 77
 cardiac 72
 and venous pressure 73
 classification of 70
 clinical picture 72
 definition 69
 fluid exchange and 68
 intake and output 63
 lymphatics in 74
 mechanism 69 74
 definition 70
 dependent and right ventricular congestive heart failure 64
 fluid in congestive heart failure 54 56
 57 60
 general considerations of 76
 inflammatory 76
 lymphedema 75

Edema, mechanism, 71
 nephritic, 74
 nephrotic, 74
 nutritional 74
 postrenal 71
 prerenal 71
 renal, 71
 specific types 72
 thrombophlebitic, 76
Eiffort syndrome 191
Eisenmenger's complex, 252
Electrocardiogram and cardiac irregularities 267
 in acute bacterial endocarditis, 170
 in acute myocarditis, 161
 in anemic heart disease 185
 in beriberi heart disease, 188
 in congenital heart disease, 225
 in Eisenmenger's complex 253
 in hyperthyroid heart disease 221
 in hypothyroid heart disease 222
 in neurocirculatory asthenia 192
 in patent ductus arteriosus, 247
 in pulmonary stenosis, 248
 in rheumatic heart disease 217
 in tetralogy of Fallot 252
 in tricuspid atresia 243
 in ventricular septal defect, 245
Electrocardiographic signs of heart disease 49
Electrolyte metabolism 68
 in congestive heart failure 57
 of normal man 67 68
Embolism paradoxical 241
Emphysema mediastinal 188
Endarteritis subacute bacterial 243 247
Endocarditis, 166
 bacterial 166
 acute 166
 cardiac findings 169
 clinical syndrome 169
 course 170
 etiologic agents 166
 incidence 167
 murmur in, 169
 pathologic changes 167
 treatment 170
 subacute, 171
 and pancarditis, 184
 clinical picture 171 172
 course 172
 etiologic factor 171
 pathologic changes 172
 treatment 172
 valvular involvement in 172
 Lhs point 143
Etiological diagnosis of heart disease 50 303
Examination of heart 88
 auscultation 90

- Examination of heart, inspection 88
 - palpation 88
 - percussion, 90
- Expectoration and heart disease 20
- Examination from trans-a-
- dates 65
- Examination of, 81

F

- Failure, congestive heart *See* Conges-
tive heart failure
- Failure anginal 52
- Faintness and cardiac disease 81
- Fibrillation, auricular, 41 159 290
- Fluids and congestive heart failure 258
 - and edema 69
 - intake and output 69
- Fluid balance, 66
 - and capillary permeability 68
 - and congestive heart failure 66
 - and edema 68 69
 - and electrolytes 68
 - and hormones 72
 - and lymphatics 68
- Fluoroscopy method 36
- Flutter, auricular, 41 287 290
- Forward failure concept of congestive
heart failure 53
- Frequencies audible 96
 - of heart sounds
 - first, 105
 - fourth 103 111
 - second 107
 - third 108
- Friction rub pericardial 46 156
- Functional diagnosis of heart disease 50

G

- GARNER method of measuring venous
pressure 47
- Gallop rhythm, 117
 - characteristics of 121
 - classification of 117 121
 - definition of 117
 - mesosystolic, 118 119
 - presystolic 118
 - protodiasystolic, 118 119
 - systolic 117
- Giddiness and cardiac disease 81
- Graham Steell murmur, 149
- Goldblatt 204
- Gower's syndrome 192
- Graves disease 220
 - as definite sign of heart disease, 46

H

- HEADACHE and cardiac disease 81
- Heart, anatomy of, 17
 - clinical aspects 23
 - auscultation of 90
 - block 298 *See also* under Cardiac
mechanisms
 - as a sign of heart disease, 41
 - circulation, 20
 - congenital defects of 149
 - and cyanosis 87
 - examination of 81
 - approach to 79
 - auscultation 90
 - heart sounds 90 *See also* Heart
sounds
 - history 79
 - inspection 88
 - palpitation 88
 - percussion 90
 - physical 81
 - abdomen 84
 - capillary pulsation 82
 - cyanosis 85
 - extremities 81
 - general appearance 82
 - jaundice 87
 - linking of carotid arteries 81
 - neck 84
 - ophthalmoscopic examination 84
 - pulse 82
 - thorax 84
 - symptoms 79
 - cough and expectoration 81
 - dyspepsia 81
 - dyspnea 80
 - miscellaneous symptoms 81
 - pain 79
 - palpitation 80
 - weakness 81
 - irritable 191
 - size measurement of 32
 - valves 23
 - and origin of sound 98
- Heart Disease 161
 - absence of 30
 - and psychoneuroses 189
 - management of 193 194
 - neurocirculatory asthenia 141
 - characteristics 191
 - clinical manifestations 191
 - incidence 191
 - physical examination 192
 - symptoms 192
 - tachycardia 190
 - vasovagal attacks 192
 - clinical picture 193
 - incidence 192

- Heart Disease** anemic 181
 clinical manifestations 18
 incidence 181 182
 management 182
 mechanism 181
 prevention 182
 severe 49
- angina pectoris** 201 260. See also
 under **Angina pectoris**
- arterio-sclerotic** 192
 = **diagnosed angina pectoris** 201
 and valvular disease 18
 clinical manifestations 18
 etiology 192
 incidence 196 19
 mechanism 196
 myocardial infarction 197
 pathologic changes 181 182
 treatment 18
- cause** 18
 clinical manifestations 18
 cardiovascular 188
 incidence 18
 pathologic alterations 18
 treatment 189
- cardiac enlargement** 37
 classification of 30
 common types 181
 congenital 227. See also **Congenital cardiac anomalies**
 congestive 2. See also **Congestive heart failure**
- coronary artery** 13 197
 coronary occlusion 267. See also
 under **Coronary occlusion**
 = **anatomy** 180
 definition 161
 diagnosis of 30 30
 distal occlusion 41
 diastolic murmur 46
 flow of the aging process 192. See
 also **Heart disease arterio-sclerotic**
 flow to aorta 181
 due to infarction 12
 enlargement 166. See also **Endo-**
carditis
 myocardial acute 163. See also
Myocarditis
 partial 181. See also **Pan-**
carditis
 pericardial 12. See also **Peri-**
carditis
 type of 163
- electrocardiographic change** 49
 localized 164. See also under
Endocarditis
 generalized relative arterio-sclerotic 46
 Heberden's pain 46
 history 9
- Heart Disease** hypertensive 203
 an arterial disease 206
 cause of death in 205
 = **clinical manifestations** 204
 course 20
 etiologic factors 201 20
 incidence 201
 malignant 20
 mortality 201
 pathologic picture 20
 physical examination 20
 treatment 205
- incidence** 162
 increased venous pressure 46
 jaundice 18
 mechanism of disturbances 2. See
 also under **Cardiac mechanisms**
 myocardial 46
 myocardial 101
 nutrition 181
 hereditary 18
 clinical picture 166
 anagenesis 18
 hereditary 2
 pericarditis 181
 pericardial friction rub 46
 pericarditis 12. See also **Peri-**
carditis
 physical examination 181
 rheumatic 215. See also **Rheumatic heart disease**
 = **genetics** 85
 symptoms in 181
 physical 204
 clinical picture 210
 course 214
 diagnosis 214
 etiologic agent 201
 incidence 209
 pathologic changes 20
 treatment 214
- thrills** 46
 thyrotoxic 219. See also **Thyroid heart disease**
 thyrotoxic 46
- Heart failure** anginal 52
 congestive. See **Congestive heart failure**
- Heart sounds** 30
 apical 116
 and premature contraction 29
 cardiorespiratory 15
 characteristics of 9
 duration of 9
 extracardiac 157
 cardiorespiratory 15
 hydropneumothorax 15
 mediastinal emphysema 19
 xiphisternal crush 15
 extraneous 99

Heart sounds, fetal, 116

first, 103

normal, 103

identification of, 91

splitting of, 114

fourth, 109

confusion with diastolic rumble, 95

in infants, 116

timing of, 92

in children, 117

in congenital anomalies, 149

in disease, 117

gallop rhythm 117

valvular, 119

aortic, 138

mitral, 122, 132

pulmonary, 145

tricuspid, 132, 149

in infants 116

in pregnancy, 117

in senility, 117

infrasonic, 96

intensity of, 97

mixed, 96

murmurs, 119. See also under Mur-
murs heart

nomenclature for describing, 94

normal, 103

auricular See fourth

first, 103

components of, 101, 105

duration of, 105

frequency of, 105

graphic appearance of 104

origin of, 103

relation to other cardiac events,
100

fourth 109

graphic characteristics of, 111

incidence of 111

origin of, 110

relation to other physiologic ac-
tivity, 111

second, 107

graphic characteristics of, 107

origin of, 107

relation to other cardiac phe-
nomena, 107

splitting of, 108

third, 108

factors influencing, 108

graphic characteristics of, 108

incidence of, 108

origin of, 108

relation to other cardiac func-
tions, 108

origin of, 98

phlebogram and, 100

pitch of, 97

Heart sounds, quality of, 90recording of, 99 See also Recording
of sound

relation to type of patient, 116

second, 107

in infants, 116

in mitral stenosis, 132

splitting of, 108, 116

timing of, 92

sex and, 117

splitting of, 108, 114, 116

supra-sonic, 96

third, 108

in bundle branch block, 116

in infants, 116

in mitral stenosis, 132

timing of, 91, 92

timbre of, 97

ultra-sonic, 96

variations in 112, 158

auricular fibrillation, 159

bundle branch block, 158

complete atrioventricular block 158

bruit de canon, 159

systole en écho, 159

premature contractions, 160

pulsus alternans, 160

Heberden pain, 46

Hemoptysis in aortic aneurysm, 214

in left ventricular congestive heart
failure, 81

Hemorrhage in endocarditis, 169

Hepatomegaly and right ventricular con-
gestive heart failure 65

Hering-Breuer reflex 274

and left ventricular congestive heart
failure, 60

History taking 79

Hoarseness, and cardiac disease, 81

Hormones and fluid balance, 72

Houssay, 204

Hydropneumopericardium, and heart
sounds, 158

Hydrostatic pressure 66

and cardiac edema, 72

Hypertension, diastolic, 49, 203

cause of death in, 208

etiologic classification, 205

murmur of 144

in coarctation of the aorta 255

management, 208

venous 64

and indirect measurement 48

and right ventricular congestive
heart failure, 64

mechanism in, 56

Hypertensive heart disease, 203 See also
Heart disease, hypertensive**Hyperthyroid heart disease, 219** See also
under Thyroid heart disease

- Hyperthyroidism, and auricular fibrillation, 291
 Hypotension, venous, by indirect method 48
 Hypothyroid heart disease, 221 See also under Thyroid heart disease

I

- Infarction, myocardial, 199
 Infection as cause of heart disease, 162
 See also Heart disease, due to infection
 Inflammatory edema, 76
 Infrasonic heart sounds 96
 Insomnia and cardiac disease, 81
 Inspection of the heart, 88
 and cardiac enlargement 32
 and cardiac mechanism 267
 Insufficiency, aortic 140
 mitral 133
 pulmonary, 147
 tricuspid, 149
 Intensity of heart sounds 97 107-109
 Interference 98
 Intervale 102
 Intracapillary blood pressure 66
 Irritability and cardiac disease 81
 Irritable heart 191

J

- JANUARY in heart disease 87
 Junctional paroxysmal tachycardia 293

K

- KARRELL diet 312
 Kidneys and edema 70
 in congestive heart failure 57 59
 in endocarditis 169
 in nephrosis 76
 Linking of carotid arteries 81
 Korotkow sounds and cardiac mechanism 267
 in auricular fibrillation, 293
 in measuring blood pressure 42
 in premature contractions 277
 in pulsus alternans 45
 origin of 103

L

- LEFT ventricular congestive heart failure
 See Congestive heart failure, left ventricular
 Lewis method of measuring venous pressure 47
 Lewis bar Thomas 193
 Litten's sign 88
 Lutenbacher syndrome, 244

- Lymphatic system and fluid balance, 68
 in cardiac edema, 74
 Lymphedema, 77

M

- MASTECTOMY and heart disease, 186
 Measurement of arterial blood pressure, 12
 of venous pressure, 47
 direct method, 49
 indirect method, 47
 Mediastinal emphysema and heart sound, 158
 Me-diastolic gallop rhythm, 118, 119
 Mitral insufficiency, etiology of, 137
 murmur of, 133
 Mitral regurgitation, etiology of, 137
 murmur of, 133
 Mitral stenosis, 33, 34 122
 and auricular fibrillation, 127
 and interauricular septal defect, 244
 hemoptysis in, 81
 murmur of, 126
 and thrill, 129
 etiology of, 129
 functional, 129
 cause of, 136
 intensity of, 129
 weakness in, 81
 Morphine and congestive heart failure, 259
 and coronary occlusion, 263
 Murmurs, heart, and thrills, 89
 Austin Flint, 129, 147
 characteristics of, 91
 continuous, in patent ductus arteriosus, 151
 crescendo, 93
 decrecendo 93
 diastolic, 46
 duration of, 91
 functional 135
 Graham-Steele 149
 hemic 135, 136
 in aortic insufficiency 140
 in aortic stenosis 138
 in auricular septal defect 244
 in congenital cardiac anomalies 221
 in disease, 119
 of aortic valve, 138
 of mitral valve 122 126, 133
 of pulmonary valve 145
 of tricuspid valve, 132, 149
 in mitral insufficiency, 133
 etiology of, 137
 in mitral stenosis, 122, 126
 etiology of, 129
 in pulmonary insufficiency, 147
 in pulmonary stenosis 145
 in tricuspid insufficiency, 149

- Murmurs, heart, in tricuspid stenosis, 132, 149**
 machine, in patent ductus arteriosus, 154, 246
nomenclature for describing, 94
 Roger's, 149
 systolic, 135
 transmission of, 131
- Myocardial infarction, 199**
 age incidence of, 197
 characteristics, 199
 complicating states, 200
course, 200
 physical examination 200
 roentgenographic findings 200
 treatment, 200
- Myocarditis, acute, 163**
 and aortic insufficiency, 141
 clinical manifestations, 164
course, 165
 diagnostic criteria 164
 in rheumatic heart disease, 216
 laboratory data, 164
pathologic manifestations 163
 prevention, 165
 prognosis, 165
- Myxedema as definite sign of heart disease, 46**
- N
- Neck, examination of, 84**
 Nephritic edema, 74
 Nephritis and endocarditis 169
 Nephrotic edema, 74
 Neurocirculatory asthenia, 191
 Neurosis cardiac 189
 management of, 193
 Nitroglycerin 47 202 260
 Noise, definition of 97
Nomenclature of heart disease 403
 Normal sinus rhythm 269
 Nutritional edema 74
- O
- Oat-rye diet, 321**
 Occlusion, coronary, treatment of 262
 Oliver's sign, 84
 Ophthalmoscopic examination 84
 Orthodiagraphy, method 38
 Orthopnea and left ventricular congestive heart failure, 59
 Osler's nodes, 169
 Oxygen and congestive heart failure 258
 and coronary occlusion, 263
 exchange, impairment of, 85
- P
- Pain, Heberden, 16**
 and angina pectoris, 46, 202
 and coronary occlusion, 47
 of acute aortitis, 80
 of acute myocarditis, 80
 of acute pericarditis, 80
 of dissecting aneurysm, 80
 of endocarditis, 169
 of pericarditis, 175
 precordial, 79 175
- Palpation of heart, 83**
 and cardiac mechanisms, 267
 to detect cardiac enlargement 42
- Palpitory method of measuring blood pressure, 42**
- Palpitation, 80**
 and trepopnea, 81
 in neurocirculatory asthenia, 192
- Pancarditis, 181**
- Paroxysmal tachycardia, 284 See also under Cardiac mechanisms**
- Patent ductus arteriosus, 154, 245**
 and aortic aneurysm 213
 murmur in, 154
- Patent interauricular septum, 153**
 murmur in, 153
- Patent interventricular septum 149**
 murmur in 149
- Pellagra and heart disease, 186**
- Penicillin and congestive heart failure, 209**
 in rheumatic fever 219
 in syphilis 214
- Percussion 90**
 to detect cardiac enlargement 34
- Periarteritis nodosa 199**
- Pericardial effusion clinical manifestations 177**
- Pericardial friction rub 46 156**
 in myocardial infarction 169
 murmur in 156
- Pericarditis, 172**
 and cardiac tamponade 176 180
 and pericardial effusion 177
 chronic 182
 adhesive 180
 classification of 172
 clinical aspects 174
 constrictive 176
 diagnosis 173 178
 etiology factors 174
 psym in 175
 pathology 174 176
 physiology, 176
 prevention 183
 purulent 183
 treatment 183
 tuberculous 183
- Phlebogram, 100**
- Phlebomanometer, 48**
- P
- PAGE, 204**
- Pain, and cardiac disease, 79**

Phlebotonometers, direct 45

indirect, 47

Garner, 47

Lewis 47

von Recklinghausen, 47

Phlebotatic axis, 49

best 49

Phonocardiogram, 102. See also under

Recording of sound

Physical examination of the cardiac patient, 81 See also **Heart, examination of**

Physiological diagnosis of heart disease 50 303

Pich's disease 186

alias 233

in tetralogy of Fallot 250

Post-renal edema, 71

Pregnancy and heart sounds, 117

Premature contractions, 214 See also under **Cardiac mechanisms**

Prerenal edema 70

Presystole 102

Presystolic gallop rhythm 118

Protodiastolic gallop rhythm, 49
and left ventricular congestive heart failure 64

in acute myocarditis 164

in anemic heart disease 193

Psychoneurosis as cause of cardiac dysfunction 189

management of 193

Pulmonary insufficiency 147

functional 148

murmur of 147

Pulmonary regurgitation 147

murmur of 147

Pulmonary stenosis 145 217

functional 147

murmur of 145 154

Pulmonic second sound accentuated and left ventricular congestive heart failure 64

Pulsations capillaries 82

examination of 82

Pulse 82

Corrigan 211

in cardiac examination 82

types of 84

water hammer 211

Pulsus alternans, 41 216 See also under **Cardiac mechanisms**

Pulsus paradoxus in pericarditis 177

Quinidine, 261

and auricular fibrillation, 261

and coronary occlusion, 261

and paroxysmal tachycardia, 261

and premature contractions, 261

R

Reconnoiter in edema, 65

Right, and left ventricular congestive heart failure, 64

Recording of sound, 91

devices for, 91

direct 91

indirect, 91

natural frequency of, 91

requirements of, 100

phonocardiogram analysis of 102

Regurgitation aortic 140 143

mitral, 133

pulmonary 147

tricuspid, 141

Renal edema 70

Resonance 94

Rheumatic fever and mitral stenosis 121
pain in, 86

Rheumatic heart disease, 215

acute 217

early in development in 217

chronic, 217

clinical manifestations 216

course 217

electrocardiogram in 217

etiology 215

incidence, 215

laboratory findings, 216

pathologic changes 215

prevention of 219

roentgenogram in 217

surgical intervention in 219

symptoms 216

treatment 218

valvular involvement in 216

rice diet 113

Right ventricular congestive heart failure

See **Congestive heart failure, right ventricular**

Roentgenogram, in auricular septal defect 211

in constriction of aorta 215

in left ventricular congestive heart failure 64

in Eisenmenger's complex 211

in myocardial infarction, 209

in neuroregulatory asthma 192

in patent ductus arteriosus 217

in pulmonary stenosis 218

in rheumatic heart disease 217

- Murmurs, heart, in tricuspid stenosis**, 132
 149
 machine, in patent ductus arteriosus,
 154, 216
 nomenclature for describing, 91
 Roger's, 149
 systolic, 135
 transmission of, 134
- Myocardial infarction**, 199
 age incidence of, 197
 characteristics, 199
 complicating states, 200
 course, 200
 physical examination, 200
 roentgenographic findings, 200
 treatment, 200
- Myocarditis, acute**, 163
 and aortic insufficiency, 144
 clinical manifestations, 164
 course, 165
 diagnostic criteria, 164
 in rheumatic heart disease, 216
 laboratory data, 164
 pathologic manifestations, 163
 prevention, 165
 prognosis, 165
- Myxedema as definite sign of heart disease**, 46
- NECK** examination of, 81
- Nephritic edema**, 74
- Nephritis and endocarditis**, 169
- Nephrotic edema**, 74
- Neurocirculatory asthenia**, 191
- Neurosis cardiac**, 189
 management of, 193
- Nitroglycerin**, 47, 202, 260
- Noise, definition of**, 97
- Nomenclature of heart disease**, 303
- Normal sinus rhythm**, 219
- Nutritional edema**, 74
- O**
- Obesity diet**, 321
- Occlusion, coronary**, treatment of, 262
- Oliver's sign**, 81
- Ophthalmoscopic examination**, 84
- Orthodiagraphy method**, 18
- Orthopnea and left ventricular congestion**,
 heart failure, 59
- Oster's nodes**, 169
- Oxygen and congestive heart failure**, 258
 and coronary occlusion, 263
 exchange impairment of, 85
- P**
- Pact**, 204
- Pain, and cardiac disease**, 79
 Heberden, 46
 and angina pectoris, 46, 202
 and coronary occlusion, 47
 of acute aortitis, 80
 of acute myocarditis, 80
 of acute pericarditis, 80
 of dissecting aneurysm, 80
 of endocarditis, 169
 of pericarditis, 175
 precordial, 79, 175
- Palpation of heart**, 85
 and cardiac mechanisms, 267
 to detect cardiac enlargement, 42
- Palpitory method of measuring blood pressure**, 42
- Palpitation**, 80
 and dyspnea, 81
 in neurocirculatory asthenia, 192
- Pancarditis**, 184
- Paroxysmal tachycardia**, 284 See also
 under *Cardiac mechanisms*
- Patent ductus arteriosus**, 154, 215
 and aortic aneurysm, 213
 murmur in, 154
- Patent interauricular septum**, 153
 murmur in, 153
- Patent interventricular septum**, 149
 murmur in, 149
- Pellagra and heart disease**, 186
- Penicillin and congestive heart failure**, 259
 in rheumatic fever, 219
 in syphilis, 214
- Percussion**, 93
 to detect cardiac enlargement, 34
- Periarteritis nodosa**, 199
- Pericardial effusion**, clinical manifestations, 177
- Pericardial friction rub**, 46, 156
 in myocardial infarction, 199
 murmur in, 156
- Pericarditis**, 172
 and cardiac tamponade, 176, 180
 and pericardial effusion, 177
 chronic, 182
 adhesive, 180
 classification of, 172
 clinical aspects, 173
 constrictive, 176
 diagnosis, 173, 175
 etiologic factors, 173
 pain in, 175
 pathology, 174, 171
 physiology, 176
 prevention, 183
 purulent, 183
 treatment, 183
 tuberculous, 183
- Phlebogram**, 100
- Phlebotomanometer**, 45

- Turbulence of flow, and heart sound, 93
 cause of, 84
 in aortic stenosis, 138
 in endocarditis, 169
 in mitral stenosis, 122
 in tricuspid insufficiency, 149
- U
- ULTRASONIC heart sounds, 90
 Urgeleider tables, 34, 310
- V
- VALSALVA, sinuses of, 20
 Valves, cardiac, 25
 and heart sounds, 98
 disease of, 119
 and arteriosclerosis, 198
 aortic, 138
 mitral, 122, 126, 133
 pulmonary, 145
 tricuspid, 132, 149
 Vasodilators, and angina pectoris, 260
 and coronary occlusion, 263
 Vasovagal attacks, 192
 Venous hypertension. See Hypertension,
 venous
- Venous pressure, increased, and cardiac
 edema, 72
 measurements, 47
 direct method, 48
 indirect method, 47
 mechanism in, 56
 Venous tone, increased in congestive
 heart failure, 57
 Ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia, 285
 Vertigo and cardiac disease, 81
 Vital capacity, decreased, in left ven-
 tricular congestive heart failure, 63
 Von Recklinghausen method of measuring
 venous pressure, 47
- W
- WATER balance in congestive heart fail-
 ure, 73
 Water-hammer pulse, 211
 Water metabolism, in congestive heart
 failure, 57
 normal, 67
 Weakness and cardiac disease, 81
- X
- XIPHISTERS' CRUNCH, 157

Roentgenogram, in tetralogy of Fallot, 250
 in thyroid heart disease, 221
 in transposition of the great vessels, 254
 in tricuspid atresia, 253
 in ventricular septal defect, 245
methods of obtaining, 34
Roentgenomography, method, 38
Roger's murmur, 149

S

SALT-RESTRICTED diet, 312, 315
Septal defect, auricular, 241
 ventricular, 244
Sighing respiration, in left ventricular congestive heart failure, 59
 in neurocirculatory asthenia, 192
Sinus arrhythmia, 273 *See also under*
Cardiac mechanisms
Sinus bradycardia, 272 *See also under*
Cardiac mechanisms
Sinus tachycardia, 269 *See also under*
Cardiac mechanisms
Soldier's heart, 191
Sound, 96
 and noise, 97
 definition of 96
 extracardiac 157
 frequencies of, 96
 classification of 96
 physical characteristics, 96
 tone of, 96
 tracings, 95
Sounds, heart *See Heart sounds*
Spleen, in endocarditis, 169
Splitting of heart sounds 114
 first, 114
 second 108, 116
Starling 276, 300
Stasis of blood, and cyanosis 86
Stenosis, aortic, 138
 mitral, 33, 34, 122
 pulmonary, 145, 247
 tricuspid 132, 149
Stokes-Adams syndromes and heart block
 290, 300
Streptococcus viridans 171, 247
Symptoms *See under specific condition*

Heart disease, symptoms
Systole, and heart sounds 91
 atrial, 92
 an echo, 159
 and heart block, 290
 timing of, 91
 ventricular, 92
 phases of, 102

T

Tachycardia, and anxiety neurosis, 189
 and palpitation, 80
 paroxysmal, 284
 simple, 190
 sinus, 269
Teleoroentgenography, method, 34, 35
Test, Gaerfner, 47
 Lewis, 47
 von Recklinghausen, 47
Tetralogy of Fallot, 249
 murmurs in, 154, 250
Therapeutic classification of heart disease,
 51, 306
Thorax, examination of, 81
Thrills, 46
 and murmurs, 89
 and vibration of thoracic wall, 89
 in auricular septal defect, 241
 in patent ductus arteriosus, 156
 in tricuspid insufficiency, 149
 location of, 59

 course, 221
 diagnosis 220
 etiology, 219
 incidence 219
 pathologic pattern, 220
 treatment, 221
 hypothyroid, 221
 clinical manifestations 222
 course 222
 incidence 222
 mechanism 221
 pathologic picture 222
 treatment 222
Thyrototoxicosis as sign of heart disease
 46
Timbre of heart sounds 97
Tissue pressure and edema 77
 and fluid balance 68
Tone of sound 96
Tonsillectomy, in rheumatic heart disease
 218
Tracheal tug 81
Transmission of murmurs 134
Transudates, differentiation from exu-
 dates, 65
Traube's pistol-shot sound 211
Treatment *See under specific condition*
Treponema pallidum 209
Trepopara, 81
Tricuspid insufficiency, 149
Tricuspid regurgitation, 149
Tricuspid stenosis, 132, 149
Triple rhythm, 117

